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THE THIRTY-SEVENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

PART I GUIDANCE IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Prepared by the Society's Committee on Guidance

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INFORMATION CONCERNING THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS OF THE SOCIETY

For Constitution of the Society, Minutes of the New Orleans Meeting, Proceedings of the Board of Directors, Report of the Treasurer, and List of Members, see Part II of this Yearbook.

EDITOR'S PREFACE

In December, 1934, Dean Grayson N. Kefauver, of Stanford University, called the attention of the Board of Directors to the fact that ten years had elapsed since the Society had published a yearbook in the field of guidance, and declared that so many changes had occurred in the theory and practice of guidance during the last decade that it would now be advantageous to present a careful analysis of the present status of guidance and a critical appraisal of the developments that had led to this status.

The Board expressed definite interest in this suggestion. Dean Kefauver was asked to submit later on a statement showing his ideas as to the contents, time needed for preparation, persons qualified to serve as contributors, and estimated cost of such a yearbook as he had in mind.

At the St. Louis meeting of the Board, in February, 1936, Dean Kefauver, present by invitation, reported orally on the matters just mentioned. The Board granted him \$200 for use during the next twelve months in interviewing and corresponding with colleagues and in developing a detailed outline of the proposed yearbook, with the thought especially in mind that, if approved, the Board of Directors might ask appropriate agencies, like the Youth Commission, to underwrite some of the expense of preparing the yearbook.

Following correspondence and interviews during 1936 with numerous persons interested in educational guidance, Dean Kefauver, just prior to our New Orleans meeting in 1937, assembled for group discussion a number of these persons, including Director Trabue, representing the Board of Directors.

Dean Kefauver was thus able during the same week to report the results of a two-day discussion of the proposed yearbook. This report, which included a full outline of the volume and a provisional assignment of topics, was so promising that the Board formally authorized the committee of seven whose names appear in the pages that follow, appropriated one thousand dollars for its use, and scheduled publication for one year later; that is, in February, 1938.

During the seven months that were actually available for intensive work on "Guidance in Educational Institutions," the Committee, together with the coöperating contributors, worked hard and enthusiastically on its preparation, especially by means of meetings of several

days' duration in which the entire group was able to discuss the content and point of view of each chapter. The result was, as the reader will readily perceive, a high degree of unanimity; indeed, several members of the Committee felt that it might have been more appropriate to present each chapter as a product of the Committee as a whole, rather than as a product of the writer who was primarily responsible for its preparation.

That Dean Kefauver was correct when he stated that many changes had taken place in the theory and practice of guidance during the last decade will be evident when the content of this yearbook is compared with that of the earlier one on *Vocational Guidance and Education for Industry*. The reader may feel that to some extent the present volume portrays, in the greatly widened concept of guidance, an ideal state of affairs that will never be approximated unless or until radical improvements can be made in the selection and training of teachers and until there is general acceptance of a new philosophy of education. Or, he may feel that in the last resort, human nature will forever constitute an insurmountable obstacle to the attainment of some of the objectives here set up, even if there were developed an ideal body of teachers working under a universally accepted and unquestionably valid philosophy of education. That is something for the individual reader to decide for himself. In any event this yearbook should prove most stimulating and provocative.

G. M. W.

INTRODUCTION

A yearbook on Guidance in Educational Institutions might have taken any one of several forms. It might have been devoted to a survey of the literature on guidance, summarizing the thinking and reporting the investigations in the field. It might have been given to a detailed description of guidance practices in different types of educational institutions. While some materials of both types have been included in this Yearbook, the Committee set for itself a different task.

The program of educational institutions has undergone basic change and is in process of still further change. Developments in the nature of instruction and in the conceptions as to what constitutes desirable instruction affect the rôle and the form of the guidance service. The Yearbook Committee has taken note of the developments in the curriculum, in society, in knowledge of the individual, and in conceptions of education and has treated the purpose, scope, and general nature of the guidance service in the light of these developments.

The interrelation of the different aspects of the school program was clearly recognized by the Committee. The part of the school characterized as 'guidance' cannot be examined effectively without considering it as part of the whole school. In other words, recognition of the organismic nature of the school presents need of consideration of the entire school program. However, such a project would be impossible in a single yearbook. The Committee has tried to avoid the error of treating a segment of the school as though it can be considered by itself. In as much as guidance is so closely interwoven with the different purposes and activities of the school that it can be understood only when considered in connection with instruction and administration, the Committee has given much thought to these factors.

The following chapters contain frequent reference to the adjustments that should be made in the guidance service to bring it in harmony with the remainder of the school program. However, the major emphasis in this Yearbook is on the type of guidance service that is adapted to the form of education believed by the Committee to be sound and to be supported by educational trends.

Two problems created difficulty for those writing sections of the Yearbook. Certain procedures and plans of organization in guidance are criticized by the writers as not being desirable. Yet, considering all the circumstances in a particular school, these procedures and plans

may constitute the most workable practices that could be recommended in practice and at this time for that school. The judgment of what is desirable must be made with reference to the total school and community situation. There should be consistence and harmony in the educational philosophy underlying the different practices of the school.

The second, and related, problem was that of making clear the fact that guidance practices that are judged to be desirable may not be workable at the present time in a particular school. Procedures that are educationally sound and that are supported by psychological and sociological considerations may not be those that will be most effective in a given situation. Guidance procedure should be selected in light of all the factors that affect the work of teachers and the experiences of students. The treatment in the Yearbook indicates what it is believed teachers ought to do, and to have the capacity to do, and what it is believed the teacher must do to be most successful in instruction. Yet the Committee fully recognizes that teachers vary in their capacity and interest in guidance and that many of them are not now prepared to assume all the responsibilities proposed in the pages that follow.

It is not expected that all readers will come to the same conclusion on all points as did the members of the Yearbook Committee. However, it is the hope of the Committee that the Yearbook will represent a body of material deserving of careful study even by those who differ with the Committee both in its basic assumptions and in its conclusions. The Yearbook will then prove suggestive and provocative to those who are attempting to develop a modern school program.

The several chapters have been subjected to critical scrutiny by the entire Committee, and, for the most part, the view held by each writer carried the approval of the group. Each writer, however, had full freedom to present his own best thinking, and he is fully responsible for the treatment given the phase of guidance covered by the chapter he wrote.

For the Committee,

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, *Chairman.*

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CHAPTER I

GUIDANCE AND PURPOSEIVE LIVING

ARTHUR J. JONES
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I. NEEDS AND PURPOSES OF STUDENTS, THE CENTER OF EDUCATION

The school at all levels is now accepting much more seriously its responsibility for helping students to develop and to maintain wholesome personalities. In the face of great handicaps, there is a concerted effort being made to prevent all types of personality maladjustments through attempts to arrange a total school environment favorable to wholesome personality development. This is leading teachers to focus their attention primarily upon the needs and purposes of their students rather than upon subject matter. There is a growing recognition of the undesirability of clinging to a rigidly-fixed-in-advance course of study, which, as numerous new problems and purposes for youth emerge, can only breed maladjustments and induce disintegration. The undesirability of expecting guidance workers operating as adjunct specialists with no major share in the ordering of the course of study to remedy the maladjustments thus created is also increasingly becoming apparent.

All behavior with which education is concerned is purposive in nature, even though it may be irrational in nature or unconsciously induced, or both. Hence, the purposes or goals of the student should constitute a major consideration in the planning done by the teacher. This holds with equal validity both for long-term and for day-by-day planning. It is now clear that to force a student to engage for any considerable length of time in activities that are meaningless to him tends to produce disintegration and undesirable attitudes.

This recognition of the rôle of student purposes in learning is leading to a changed concept concerning what constitutes student progress in the school. The progress of students toward the progressive achieve-

ment of their purposes and life goals, with subject matter regarded as an important means to be employed when and as needed in the service of their all-round development, is now becoming a primary consideration. Objectives of teaching are now coming to be conceived primarily in terms of desired changes in behavior rather than in terms of a prescribed subject matter to be mastered.

Quite naturally, this is in turn leading to the abandonment of the practice of determining in advance exactly and in detail what subject matter is to be taught. It is also resulting in the elimination of fixed standards of achievement for all students on a given grade level. The significance of individual differences with respect to needs and purposes as well as to potentialities is now more clearly appreciated. In sum, it is now widely recognized that instruction should start with, and intimately be geared to, the real problems, perplexities, desires, needs, and consequent purposes of students.

This means that the teacher-dominated, subject-matter-centered school is giving way (indeed, in some situations has to a considerable extent given way) to a school in which the purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating of learning experiences are coming to be regarded as coöperative ventures involving both student and teacher. Thus we see that there is a growing emphasis upon the fundamental importance of self-directed pupil activity and upon the function of the teacher as a guide in learning.

Since, as has been suggested, the work of the effective teacher must be student-goal centered, it is important, if not imperative, that the nature of human purposes or goals and the principles underlying their development be understood. We turn next to an exploration of these basically important considerations.

II. LIFE PURPOSES OR GOALS

If education is to be effective it must start with the child as he is, with his abilities, desires, and interests, his needs and problems, his pattern of life and conduct, and help him so to organize his experiences in meeting these needs that he will gradually develop a fundamental life purpose or goal that will be socially desirable and personally satisfying.

1. Different Kinds of Goals

One of the most important elements in the education of any individual is the formulation or development of goals to be attained. Without such goals education has no direction and becomes meaningless.

The nature of these goals varies greatly. Some are immediate, specific, and relatively fixed. Among these are certain fundamentally important habits and skills, such as habits of cleanliness, of exercise, of eating, and skills in reading, in writing, in mathematics. These goals involve the attainment of certain standards the ranges of which are fairly well established by social need and individual ability; they can, to a degree, be predetermined. There are other goals that are remote and general, that evolve out of life experiences, that change and develop as life goes on. These are not fixed in advance; they cannot be predetermined. These goals are general patterns of life values and may be called central life purposes or goals, for they furnish the center around which the activities of the individual are organized, the focus for the integration of his personality, his life. Such a central life purpose or goal might be a well-rounded personality, or it might be the welfare of society. These central goals are the product of, or parts of, a unified, integrated, individual philosophy of life; they develop out of, and through, experiences, out of the interaction between the individual and his environment. Immediate, specific goals represent one extreme of definiteness and predetermination; central goals represent the other. Between these two extremes are goals that vary greatly both in definiteness and in predetermination.

2. The Nature of Central Life Purposes or Goals

a. Central Goals Are Not Static but Dynamic and Developing. Much of the ineffectiveness of our educational program is due to the conception that such central life goals, as opposed to immediate goals, are static — fixed ends to be set up for the individual or by the individual in advance of his education. By what means they are thus to be predetermined is not clear. In some cases this conception clearly rests upon the belief that this central goal exists somewhere in the nature of each child, that education is merely a "drawing out," a revelation of that which is already within. "As the acorn has within itself in miniature every part of the great oak, so the child has within himself all the characteristics of the man, waiting only to be revealed." We now know that this is true neither of the acorn nor of the child. Education is not merely a process of discovering what lies hidden within the child and then providing conditions favorable for its growth; it is a process of guiding the child in his development. The direction in which he goes, his central life goal, is not predetermined by certain fixed qualities and characteristics that he possesses in miniature. What

he may become is limited, to be sure, by certain hereditary factors, but these merely determine the limits of his development, not the precise nature of it. Central life goals are not fixed ends to be attained or prizes to be won and kept for display; they are not standards to be reached; they are developing patterns of lives to be lived.

Suppose a child has as his central life purpose or goal, the excelling of others. Practically all his activities will be determined, as far as it is in his power to determine them, by this purpose. In his studies, in his play, at home and at school, he will strive to excel. However, experience may soon lead him to modify this goal. He may find that, no matter how hard he tries, he is not able to excel others in studies or in play. He may then modify his purpose or goal and try to excel only one or two of his companions or only those who are much younger than he. He may turn to ways that are undesirable and seek to excel in making trouble for the teacher, in destroying property or stealing. If he has a high degree of ability and finds that he is able to excel others easily, he may change his purpose or goal from trying to excel others to attempting to excel his own past performance or some standard of excellence set up as an ideal; it may be interpreted as 'doing one's best.' He may become dissatisfied entirely with the central goal, either because of inability to attain it or because of a wider outlook, discard the goal completely and set up some other goal that is for him easier to attain or personally more worth while and satisfying. In any case the goal is not static; it may be enlarged or restricted, but it will not remain the same; it may be completely changed; it will develop as life develops.

b. Central Life Goals Are Both Individual and Social. The individual phase cannot be attained except through social participation, nor can it be stated merely in individual terms. The desire to excel could hardly be a central goal in a social vacuum; even the desire to excel oneself or to do one's best has definite social implications. On the other hand, there can be no central goal, even one that emphasizes social good, except as it is related to individual activity. Social stability or social progress is meaningless as a central goal except as it refers to certain characteristics and methods of life of the individuals who make up society; it can be achieved only through the activities of individuals. Central life goals may be predominantly individual or predominantly social, but each has both individual and social aspects. The ideal central goal is one in which the two aspects are so fused that individual and social good are integral parts of the whole; each ele-

ment supports and enhances the other. Any attempt to determine the relative importance of the two aspects would be futile. As integral parts of one dynamic whole they are vital, effective; alone either one is meaningless. The individual aspect is concerned with the development of socially and emotionally mature, well-developed individuals. The social aspect emphasizes self-directed, socially minded, socially efficient individuals. The one stresses the development of the individual; the other, his contribution to social welfare.

c. The Distinction between Central Life Goals and Contributory Goals. Much confusion has resulted from the failure to distinguish between central life purposes, or goals, and those goals that are more immediate and contributory. Contributory goals are often treated as central and as largely unrelated to one another. Thus, the four objectives given in "The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" under the heads (1) vocation, (2) citizenship, (3) home, and (4) leisure time are treated as though each were a central goal and largely independent of all the others. If life is to be unified and integrated, there can be only one central goal, one dominant system of values for any one individual at any given time. This central goal is the unifying principle around which the more immediate goals are organized and by which they have meaning. It changes, develops, progresses, but it is always the directive principle in the life of the individual who is well integrated. There are or may be many immediate goals, each of which contributes, or should contribute, to the attainment of the central goal. These immediate goals are more or less specific ways, or avenues, of functioning in life by means of which the central goal is progressively realized.

There are many individuals who are not completely integrated, who have, or seem to have, no central goal, no dominant purpose. A man whose dominant purpose seems to be the accumulation of wealth may be miserly in his business, saving every penny. He may take unfair advantage of his competitors and be ruthless in his methods of securing his wealth, but he may be generous, considerate, and sympathetic in his family relationships, may give millions to education, may be a pillar of the church. Some philosophers take the position that integration is not possible or even desirable, that the only way by which we can secure freedom, attain a stable equilibrium, and realize a satisfying life is by deliberately being inconsistent. This position assumes that it is impossible to have any central purpose or goal in one's life that can act as a directive, controlling, integrating agency, or it assumes that it is impossible to bring all immediate goals into

harmony with such a central goal; accordingly, the only way to realize our central purpose or goal is by deliberate conflicts between elements in our lives. The error in this idea of conflicting goals as a necessary element in life is due to the kinds of central goals that are thought of as directive agencies. The acquisition of wealth or power is not ordinarily an effective central life goal, because it is neither socially desirable nor personally satisfying. The man just described who had this as a central goal was considerate, sympathetic, and generous in family and religious affairs because acquisition of wealth was not for him completely satisfying. The balanced life conceived of as the resultant of conflicting and opposing forces or goals is precarious and unsatisfactory when compared with a life completely integrated by some central directive purpose or goal in which all the forces or goals combine into one pattern, supporting and complementing one another with reference to the central goal. Opposing forces neutralize each other and thus lose power; complementary and integrated forces multiply power. The position taken in this Yearbook is that integration of personality is both highly desirable and possible and should be one of the chief objectives of education. This implies that such central goals should be chosen as will permit the integration of the entire life and that these goals should be socially desirable and personally satisfying.

d. The Central Purpose, or Goal. The central goal is general, not specific. It is a general pattern of life, a general way of living into which each aspect of life, each contributory goal should fit and to which it should contribute if the individual is to be integrated. Contributory goals should not conflict, but should supplement each other, with reference to the central goal. Central goals sometimes are socially and individually desirable and valuable; sometimes, unfortunately, they are socially and individually harmful and destructive. Desirable or useful central goals are largely socially determined and are, ideally, closely related to the concept of 'the good life' as conceived in the society of which the individual is a member. This central goal is an evolution, a development; it is at first seen only in the large, in more or less outline form, indistinct in parts. As life goes on, as experience grows, the goal gradually increases in definiteness, begins to take on a more distinct form or pattern.

Most individuals probably do not have any definitely formulated central goal to which they consciously refer in planning their life activities. But a careful analysis of what one does from day to day and year to year, of his plans, his ambitions and his underlying motives

will usually reveal such a central unifying pattern, principle, or goal by which his past activities can be interpreted and his future activities predicted. Such central goals often grow out of more or less specific childhood goals. Thus, the natural desire of the child to be noticed by the mother and father may, if not guided, develop into a central goal of personal popularity that will dominate and direct every phase of his life. An initial desire to please one's mother or one's teacher may develop through guided experience into a central goal directed toward the increase of human happiness. All central goals have their beginnings in past experience and develop gradually, often unconsciously, out of this experience. They are revealed in the selection of new contributory goals and in the elimination of old ones, in the criticism by the individual of his own acts that are inconsistent with his goal, and in the patterns of values that begin to take form. Adults, as well as children, may be helped to select from apparently conflicting immediate goals and aspects of life a central goal that is appropriate for them and socially adequate. Often they may be led to discover a central goal that is implicit in their lives but not recognized by them as such. While this development of life goals is a very complex process, much help can be given in their formulation and classification by skillful questions regarding the motives or reasons that have led them to select an occupation, or recreation, or friends.

The central goal is not merely a combination of all the contributory goals that are necessary for its realizations; it is more than a collection of all its parts; it is an organic whole, a pattern of life. It is of extreme importance because it guides the selection of contributory goals, determines their worth, and demands their integration.

e. Contributory Goals. Contributory goals are of many different kinds and have varied functions. Some are specific and relatively fixed; others are general and develop in much the same way as central goals. Skills and habits are examples of more or less fixed contributory goals, while such goals as a desirable home life, or even an occupation, illustrate the more general, changing contributory goals.

Contributory goals have ultimate value only as they contribute to the central goal, and the central goal can be realized only by means of contributory goals and is vague and meaningless without them. Many contributory goals must be attained in the process of realizing the central goal. There is usually no one best group of contributory goals, no one and only route by which a given individual may realize his ultimate goal. Any one of a dozen different avenues may serve

equally well. But while the particular route may be relatively unimportant, some definite route (contributory goals or patterns or inter-related contributory goals) must be set up and followed by a given individual at a given time if he is to become integrated and is to attain his ultimate goal. Different individuals may attain the same or similar ultimate goals by very different routes. Also, different goals may be attained by use of the same routes or contributory goals. For example, several individuals may have for a central directive purpose the improvement of human society. One may attempt to do this by reforming individuals and become an evangelist. Another may contribute to the same goal by improving the health of individuals and become a nurse or a physician. Another may choose law or politics and use legislation as a means to the same end. Two men may choose the occupation of the physician, but may use the occupation for very different ends; one may consider it as a means of getting money or fame; the other may see in it a means of making human beings more efficient.

3. The Development of Life Goals a Vital Function of Education

Traditional educational practice, and curriculum-building in particular, makes little provision for the development of central life goals. It assumes that the education of each individual should be based upon a central life goal formulated in advance and relatively constant and that the chief purpose of education is merely to help him attain this goal. But if these central goals are not fixed, but developing, then one of the chief concerns of education must be the development of the central life goal itself. The curriculum should be planned with this function in view, the methods chosen with the same purpose; especially should guidance be concerned with assisting the individual in the development of his central life goal. Education is a life-long task and guidance is a life-long process paralleling the development of fundamental goals.

4. Principles Underlying the Development of Worthy Life Goals

a. The Influence of Contemporary Social Ideals upon Life Goals. The central goal for each individual will be largely influenced by contemporary social ideals. If his goal is to be socially desirable, it should be related to contemporary and to probable future social conditions and, temporarily at least, must reflect the accepted social philosophy of the country of which he is a citizen. For us this philosophy would be the social philosophy of democracy as understood today, with due

consideration to probable future modifications. The central goal, the improvement of the general welfare, would represent one of the basic values of democracy. If one accepts this goal as a central directive force in his life, all his activities will be chosen or modified by it. At first he may know little about its meaning or its implications, but as he attempts to pattern his life by it, its meanings will develop and its implications will become increasingly clear.

The central goal must be to the individual himself worth while, appropriate, and satisfying. It must not be merely a goal set up for him; it must be accepted *by* him and, as far as possible, it should be developed by him with as little help as may be necessary.

Since central goals are influenced largely by the social ideals of any given country at any given time, it must follow that socially desirable central goals for different individuals will have many points of similarity, at least in general outline. They will all, for example, include the welfare of society and the optimal development of the individual.

b. Factors Conditioning Contributory Goals. Contributory goals are conditioned by many factors and are interrelated; their general pattern is constantly changing. Among the factors that determine contributory goals for different individuals may be mentioned the following: (1) the nature of the central goal chosen; (2) the capacities of the individual; (3) the needs, interests, and aptitudes of the individual at any given time; (4) the economic and social conditions; (5) the general cultures surrounding him; (6) general occupational conditions and trends; (7) personal health; (8) home and other social conditions; (9) the goals of other persons — especially his parents and his friends; (10) the general pattern of his contributory goals at any given time (they must grow out of the present). Contributory goals should form a general organic pattern if they are to be effective as aids in attaining the central goal; they are interrelated; altering one is likely to affect all the others; they are complementary and supplementary to one another with reference to the ultimate goal. Since central goals change, evolve, develop, the patterns of contributory goals must change also.

c. Relationship between Development of Goals and Plans for Their Realization. There is an intimate reciprocal relation between the development of central life goals and the outlining of plans for their realization. We cannot set up our central goals and then proceed to their accomplishment on the theory that the goals will remain unchanged; these two enterprises are not separate and distinct. Life patterns, central purposes, are continually being modified by experience.

We formulate our goals and make our plans, but these plans must be tentative. If we find that it is impossible for us to carry out our plans, it may mean that our central goals must be modified, unless we can find other plans that will accomplish the same purpose. But when the central goal is changed, plans for its accomplishment must also be changed. The same is true of contributory goals: as patterns of these goals change, so must plans for their realization be changed. Accordingly, the development of central goals and the outlining of plans for their realization must be in the nature of a continuing unitary process if the mental health and integration of the pupil are to be safeguarded.

5. Implications

The position taken in the preceding discussion has certain implications that are very important, especially in the guidance of young people. Among the most vital of these implications are the eight that follow.

First, the life of any individual should be considered as an organic whole, not as a combination of more or less unrelated and often conflicting elements.

Second, in considering the usefulness, effectiveness, or desirability of any position or aspect of life, or of any job, the entire pattern of life should be considered, not merely one segment of it. We should take into consideration how this job contributes to the attainment of the central goal not as the entire element or necessarily the most important element, but as one of the elements that support, complement, and enhance one another as contributory elements.

For many persons their vocational activities occupy a large part of life in time, in energy, and, it may be, in interest. These activities often bring real satisfaction and joy to the individual. But they are not the whole of life, though they may furnish the chief avenue through which the central goal is realized. However, in order to find whether a given individual has a central goal, other aspects of his life must be considered — his home life, his recreational life, his activities as a citizen, as a member of a club or a church. We must ask: Is the same central goal or purpose shown in these activities?

Many occupations are of such a nature as to make difficult or impossible the complete, or even the chief, expression in them of one's central life purpose. Occupational activities to many are incidental; the main avenue for the expression of their central purpose may be the home, the avocation, civic life, or social activities. The central

purpose should, of course, be shown in the occupation, but this segment no longer has the position of central importance.

Third, the occupation cannot in itself furnish a satisfactory central purpose or goal; the central or life purpose lies deeper. For any individual, the occupation is only one of many ways by which his central purpose is realized and revealed. Guidance that relates only to occupations can never be effective or wholly satisfactory, because it includes only one segment of the life. Joy in the activities of an occupation cannot be a wholly satisfactory purpose in the selection of a life work, because it furnishes no central, guiding principle for the selection of other activities in life that are non-occupational.

Fourth, there is for most of us no one best avenue through which the central goal may be realized, no one and only position in life, occupation, or job that is predetermined; any one of a number of different avenues may be equally effective and satisfactory. The controlling element is the central purpose; the avenue through which this is realized will be influenced by many elements in our environment.

Fifth, one does not usually need to change his job or position in life in order to make it useful in achieving his central goal. While careful choice of job is of great importance, there is some opportunity in most positions for such personal adjustment as will make possible the use of the occupation or other activity in the attainment of the central purpose. The oft-quoted advice, "If we spent more time in trying to like the things we have to do instead of in attempting to find the things we like, we would be happier and more effective," has some value in cases where it is impossible to secure the best job or to change the conditions in the job.

Sixth, within certain limits, one may so change the situation in which he is placed (his job, his home, his civic life) as to increase its effectiveness as an agent or element that contributes to the attainment of his central goal. Life is full of illustrations of men who have so interpreted their jobs and governed their activities as to make them avenues through which they could contribute to human welfare. Shoemakers, carpenters, plumbers, potters, violin-makers, as well as physicians, lawyers, and social workers constantly remind us that any job that is not in itself anti-social may be undertaken or used in such a way as to contribute to the general welfare when this is the central purpose of one's life.

Seventh, central goals do not emerge full-fledged and complete at some particular time; they develop gradually out of life needs and ex-

periences. Teachers and other guidance workers should not be too hasty in their attempts to have young people formulate their central goals. Growth toward the formulation of goals must be gradual; early formulation will tend to crystallize and fix incomplete and unsatisfactory goals.

Eighth, the school curriculum should be so conceived and administered as to give constant experience and assistance in the formulation of objectives and goals by the students themselves and in the acceptance of these goals by them as bases of their work. While these goals are not central goals, the practice will help students in the formulation of central goals. Much effective work along this line is now being done in many elementary and secondary schools. The curriculum is being based more and more upon the needs, interests, and abilities of students. Practice is given in the formulation of objectives by students and in planning the activities by which these objectives may be realized. Not enough attention is being given, however, to the development of central goals that give meaning to the objectives set up and that serve as directive agencies in the achievement of an integrated life.

6. Illustrations of Central Goals

The meaning of these principles and implications may be made more definite by a few illustrations. For purposes of contrast some of the goals selected will be socially desirable and others will be socially incomplete or undesirable.

a. The Improvement of Human Welfare. By its very nature this goal can hardly be more than a general idea at first, but it will become increasingly clear as experience grows and as contributory goals are set up and attained. What is human welfare? The meaning and implications of this concept grow, and develop with on-going life. Such a goal sets no definite standards; anyone can attain it in some measure. Usually this goal cannot be realized except through an occupation, but it may be comparatively unimportant just what particular occupation is chosen. The occupation is only one avenue through which the central goal is realized. An essential part of this concept must be the development of the individual himself, but not just any sort of development; it must be development that will promote the general human welfare. Ideally there can be no conflict between the optimal development of the individual and general human welfare; practically there may be, and with this goal as a directive, integrating agency in life, when such a conflict occurs, human welfare will determine the course

taken. If this goal is to be dominating, if life is to be integrated with reference to it, every activity, every enterprise, every plan, will be chosen with reference to it. When any enterprise or activity is found by experience to be opposed to this goal or to hinder its realization, it will be rejected or so modified as to make it contribute to the attainment of the goal.

b. Power. Suppose one should choose as his ultimate life goal, power. At first, the meaning of this goal and its implications would necessarily be vague. As experience grows, as certain contributory objectives are attained, the goal becomes increasingly distinct. The different aspects of his life, the more or less related fields of his activity, such as his occupation, his home life, his leisure time, his religious life, furnish the avenues through which he progressively realizes his ultimate goal; that is, they are the contributory factors in his life and furnish the basis for the contributory goal. What occupation shall he choose? What friends shall he make? What woman shall he marry? Where shall he live? How shall he employ his leisure time? What golf club shall he join? These and other questions must be answered in terms of his central goal — power. The particular vocation may be, for him, unimportant. It may be law, medicine, industry, bootlegging, racketeering, or politics. He will choose, at any given time, the vocation that promises to contribute most to his central goal and he will so act in his vocation as to gain ever more power. He will probably change his vocation a number of times, but his central goal will remain the same. His home life, if he has any, will also be definitely related to the furtherance of his dominant purpose — power. If he so organize all these aspects of life that each contributes to obtaining power, his life is integrated. Such a goal is not in itself socially desirable, but, under certain circumstances, it may even contribute to society. If the individual is not too ruthless in his methods of gaining power, if he persuades those over whom he wishes to gain power that they will profit by it, if he uses his power for the common good, his life goal may be approved by those whom he rules, even though it may not result in good to society. If he does not observe the 'rules of the game,' society usually steps in and interferes with the plans for the attainment of the goal. For the most part, men who have this goal do not govern their entire lives by it. Often their home life or their church life is not a part of the pattern; their behavior outside of their occupation is governed by other goals entirely. This is a tacit admission on the part of the individual that such a central goal is not completely satisfying.

c. *Famous Physician.* While it is difficult to conceive of any purely vocational goal as a central goal, we will take this as it is for illustration. At the beginning it may not be at all clear just what 'famous physician' may imply. Famous for what? for skill, for money, for power? It probably is a mixture of all these. Suppose, then, that he merely wants to be a 'famous physician.' Let us see what the implications of such a choice may be. In the large, one who accepts this as a goal knows fairly well what it means, but there are several points that are not so clear. What kind of physician should he be, a general practitioner, a specialist, a surgeon? The particular kind chosen would depend upon many factors, among them capacity, interest, opportunity, money, influence. Whatever the choice is, everything in his life would find its meaning in this goal. His ambition is to be a *famous* physician, not merely a successful one. Publicity may be important. His choice of wife, or friends, of location, of clubs, all must be made in such a way as to promote this purpose. The question whether he will be honest or not will depend on whether he thinks honesty will in the long run favor or hinder the attainment of his goal or what experience shows about it. This goal would be considered by many as socially desirable; at least society would presumably benefit from it. As he progresses toward the realization of his goal, he may himself decide that it is unsatisfactory and modify it in such a way as to make it less self-centered and more obviously some phase of social welfare.

d. *A Developing Goal.* It has already been shown that central goals develop out of experience. This development often has three general phases: (1) some rather definite idea or purpose but restricted in its scope and meaning by the present environment of the child; (2) a general purpose growing out of the first and having a wider significance but being somewhat nebulous and ill defined; (3) a central goal that becomes increasingly distinct in its implications and one that serves more and more to interpret the activities of the individual and to act as a directive, integrating force in his life. The various aspects of his life begin to take on a definite pattern with relation to his central goal.

Examples of this are seen in almost any case study of developing young people. A boy wants to be a policeman; while he does not know all the duties and responsibilities of the policeman, yet the idea is fairly distinct in his mind. The policeman wears an attractive uniform; he stands in a prominent place and orders people about; he is important; everybody notices him. This, to the boy, is a job that seems definitely worth while.

As his experience enlarges, the boy sees or learns of men who are equally prominent. He learns about the mayor who controls the policeman; he finds that there is a governor of the state, a railroad president and other officials who are more important even than the policeman; he begins to understand something about the work and importance of the physician, the inventor, the scientist, the writer, and out of these experiences begins to develop a rather nebulous goal such as 'Doing Something Worth While.' The conception of what is worth while is vague at first; its meaning will change many times. It may mean 'being noticed,' or 'making money,' or 'ordering people about.' It may lead one to highway robbery, to a flight around the world, to teaching, to cabinet-making, to being a good wife or husband, to almost anything. The particular pattern will be woven gradually through many experiences, by trial and error, by formal education, by guidance. Whether it finally emerges as a socially desirable and individually satisfying goal or one that is socially destructive and individually disappointing will depend largely upon his particular environment and the guidance that is given to him. Gradually, as experience grows, there should emerge a more definite meaning of what is worth while and one that is associated with the goal of improvement of society.

In the development of this goal the school has a very important function to perform. The curriculum, in its broader aspect, provides continually widening, challenging experiences that will help in securing a knowledge of what has been worth while in the world; it will give the child an opportunity not only to see, but also to participate in, activities that are worth while. The methods, in instruction and in guidance, will emphasize experiences that are guided, to be sure, but that, nevertheless, are largely self-directed and are, for the child, worth while. They will assist him to develop a higher, more desirable concept of what is worth while, one that is definitely related to general human welfare. They will help him to develop a desire to do something that will improve human welfare and a sense of personal responsibility for attaining his ideal.

III. THE INADEQUACY OF MUCH CURRENT THEORY AND PRACTICE OF GUIDANCE

The considerations to which attention has been directed in the foregoing discussion of life purposes and goals certainly suggest that much of the theory and practice of guidance current in a great many schools today is in need of revision. It is the purpose of this section of the

present chapter to call attention to some of the more serious of these inadequacies.

The relatively inflexible and static course of study, out of harmony with the functional needs of youth to a serious degree, that was well nigh universal but a few years ago and that today still obtains in most schools, has had a profound effect on the theory and practice of guidance. The educational theory underlying such a course of study sanctions only that concept of guidance that views guidance as an adjunct specialty; that is to say, a separate service supplementary to the instructional program of the school. It is probably true that it is today thus regarded in most of the secondary schools and colleges in America.

This concept of guidance as a separate service supplementary to the instructional program postulates that teachers should carry on the work of instruction, have little or no concern for guidance, and leave to a small group of special workers the tasks of guidance. One special guidance worker or counselor for every 300-500 students is even today not uncommonly regarded as acceptable by those who hold this view of guidance. Even in the many schools in which home rooms have been introduced (too frequently this has been an administrator-conceived idea and practice imposed upon unwilling teachers innocent of the spirit and techniques of guidance), guidance is still being performed as a comparatively separate service, supplementary to the instructional program of the school.

According to this view of guidance in its most severe form, English teachers are to teach English, mathematics teachers are to teach mathematics, and so on, while the development of purposes and goals and the task of assisting youth in formulating plans, resolving perplexities, and the like, are to be performed outside of the regular classrooms by a person usually called a 'counselor.' That this necessarily inadequate guidance service is to be preferred to no guidance at all is of course granted. Furthermore, these observations must not be construed as indictments of the guidance workers who are laboring under these trying conditions. On the contrary, it should be made clear that much worthwhile assistance is being given to students in such situations. Furthermore, no one would laud more highly than the present writers these frontier workers whose sensitivity to human values led them to attempt to remedy some of the more serious of the inadequacies of the subject-matter-centered school.

The concept of guidance as a function to be set apart and carried

on by a few specially designated workers is, however, untenable in the light of the philosophy of education here advocated. It was one of the outgrowths of certain points of view and consequent practices of the traditional school that the general course of study should be defined some considerable time, frequently several years, in advance of instruction. Unless we are to regard the builders of such courses of study as persons largely indifferent to the needs of youth, we must assume that they believed it possible to anticipate the needs of students with reasonable adequacy through relatively rigid, long-range prescription, and that, therefore, it is not necessary to give teachers freedom to make adaptations to meet the varying needs of students. Whatever their assumptions were in this regard, however, they gave their sanction to a curriculum that was defined in detail and had little flexibility.

Let us now detail briefly the major tasks of guidance in such a static curriculum and note the fallacious assumptions that underlie the conception of guidance as a function to be discharged by a few specially designated workers.

In schools organized in accordance with this point of view, it becomes the task of special counselors or home-room teachers to help students define their purposes or goals, to assist them in checking these against whatever learnings the various prescribed courses afforded, and to encourage them to 'distribute' themselves accordingly. Obviously, these guidance workers are thus obliged to proceed on the fallacious assumption that the life goals, or purposes, of students are relatively fixed. The purposes of a given course in the static curriculum are not to be made to harmonize with the purpose of students, it must be remembered. Rather, the student is supposed to be able to define and more or less to fix his goals before selecting his courses for the remaining years of his school career. If we may be permitted an overstatement for the sake of emphasis, we may say that in general the picture is that of a youth, with his goals all nicely wrapped up into neat parcels and prettily labelled, 'distributing' himself to predefined, relatively inflexible courses in accordance with the labels on his parcels.

Under this concept of the course of study, with guidance as a thing apart, the numerous maladjustments resulting from inevitable faulty matchings of student purposes against course promises are held to be the special concern of the guidance counselor or home-room teacher, not the classroom teacher. Obviously, it would be both inconsistent and unfair to encourage the classroom teacher to define his instruction

more or less rigidly well in advance (long before he or anyone else can possibly know who his students are to be — much less their needs), on the one hand, and to hold him responsible for maladjustments growing out of faulty matchings of pupil purposes against professed objectives made under the supervision of a special counselor or home-room teacher, on the other hand.

Thus it is assumed in such situations that it is neither necessary nor desirable for the classroom teacher continuously to reorder his services in harmony with the changing needs and purposes of his students. According to this view, it is the course of study and *not* the student that is to be taken as it is. Hence it is held that the diagnoses to be performed by the classroom teacher should narrowly be confined to matters touching only those predetermined facts, skills, and the like, with which, under this point of view, he is almost exclusively expected to be concerned in his particular subject.

All this is simply another way of saying that in such school situations the classroom teacher is neither expected to know nor to work helpfully with 'the whole child.' Rather, in such schools these important tasks are delegated to special guidance counselors, who, though undeniably helpful, cannot possibly perform them adequately in the few hours per week they may be given for group-guidance activities and in the few interviews per year that their crowded schedules usually permit. Home-room teachers, who commonly have but one or two badly-broken-into periods per week with their respective groups, can scarcely be expected to do even as well as that.

In the traditional school in which guidance is regarded as a function apart to be performed solely by a small staff of specially designated staff members, the hundred-and-one perplexities and problems, usually of a highly personal nature, that typically confront the adolescent and that the subject matter of traditionally organized courses seldom if ever touches upon in any adequate manner, are made the special concern of the few who are responsible for providing the guidance service. Although much valuable help with such problems is unquestionably given by counselors in the course of group guidance, it is clear that they cannot be expected to do an adequate job when it is recalled that they are seldom assigned fewer than three hundred to five hundred students each; in fact, not infrequently one thousand or more are allotted to a given counselor. The absurdity of expecting these special workers satisfactorily to meet the needs of youth for help in personal matters is even more clearly recognized when it is remembered that many prob-

lems of this type can be handled adequately only through a series of personal interviews and that counselors obliged to labor under such a student load can at best hold on the average from but three to five interviews per student per year.

That these efforts of counselors working under such adverse conditions are commendable and that they yield some of the hoped-for outcomes is of course recognized; that they should be continued as an antidote so long as the static-course-of-study idea is adhered to is also strongly recommended. But it is vigorously denied that the functional needs of youth are as satisfactorily met under such an arrangement as they might be under a more valid curricular practice. In modern thinking about the curriculum it is postulated that these perplexities can adequately be resolved only if instruction starts with the real problems, perplexities, desires, and needs of students and never loses sight of them, and only if subject matter is suited to the capacities of the learners and viewed as a means to the end of facilitating their wholesome all-round development.

IV. THE FUNCTION OF GUIDANCE IN A DYNAMIC SOCIAL ORDER

There are numerous other considerations that have rendered untenable the view that courses of study can legitimately be defined rigidly in advance and that guidance should in consequence be regarded as a separate service supplementary to the instructional program of the school. Some of the more impelling of these considerations will next be briefly reviewed.

1. The Effect of Rapid Social Evolution

Rapid social evolution creates many new problems and perplexities for youth. New problems, as they are recognized, inevitably give rise to new goals and purposes. Clearly, this means that the curriculum must continuously be undergoing revision if it is to meet the functional needs of students. This in turn means that henceforth courses cannot validly be rigidly predetermined, their contents described to students in meaningful detail some years in advance of instruction, and students 'distributed' to them accordingly. Parenthetically, this does not deny the desirability of planning in advance of instruction, but it does argue for a different type of planning, as we shall point out in the closing section of this chapter.

Most of the many far-reaching and continuing social developments that are such important influences in the development of youth are

concomitants of scientific and technological advances. In this connection the Science Committee of the National Resources Committee report as one of their major findings that "the large number of inventions made every year shows no tendency to diminish. On the contrary the trend is toward further increases. No cessation of social changes due to invention is to be expected."¹ Among these concomitant changes, the following are probably worthy of special mention:

a. Out-Moded Inherited Social Arrangements. Many of our inherited social arrangements, designed in harmony with the conditions of a by-gone day to achieve the ends of democracy, are to a greater or lesser degree being progressively out-moded by the transition from pre-industrialism to industrialism, and more recently to power-industrialism, as a way of life that technological advance has brought about. In consequence, new and exceedingly difficult responsibilities of citizenship continuously confront our students. These new problems may be expected to continue to arise.

The Committee finds that in all the fields of technology and applied science which were investigated there are many new inventions that will have important influences upon society and hence upon all planning problems.²

This can only mean that our youth will continuously be confronting new problems that will give rise to new goals and purposes on their part. Under such conditions, a relatively inflexible predetermined curriculum can only result in frustration.

b. Associational Economy Demanded. Education, according to the Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administration, is now called upon to serve an associational economy and society in which the functions of government may safely be expected to expand still further. This, according to the Commission, means that youth must be prepared for associational life and for democratic participation in associational government. This necessity imposes a responsibility on the school that the traditional curriculum with its segmented guidance service cannot adequately discharge.

c. Increasing Interdependence of Nations. The nations of the world are rapidly and continuously becoming more interdependent. Occur-

¹ National Resources Committee. *Technological Trends and National Policy*. P. 7. (United States Government Printing Office: Washington, 1937)

² *Ibid.*, p. 7.

rences in one affect the well-being of citizens in all the others. This condition also creates new problems and hence new needs and purposes for youth.¹ It, too, makes necessary a more dynamic guidance service for the youth in our schools.

d. Increasing Ease of Communication. The agencies of communication are continuously being improved. The development of wire telegraphy, modern newspapers, and radio have been instrumental in profoundly altering many of our inherited social institutions. With numerous new developments, including television (already sufficiently well perfected to be utilized at once)² many new problems are suggested, as for example, the many-sided question as to how these agencies shall be controlled in the interests of the public welfare.

e. The Menace of Leisure. For many, the time spent in gainful employment is decreasing, leaving more 'free time.' The realization of the potential value of this increasing leisure is contingent upon the building in our students of more varied and more impelling inner resources of a wholesome type. The threat of commercialized amusements, too often unwholesome, grows more ominous as communities continue to lag in providing adequate facilities for the numerous types of socially desirable and personally satisfying recreational activities that our times demand.

f. The Shifting Occupational Scene. The occupational scene is continuously shifting, significantly so in a great many respects. Technological changes are creating new types of work, radically modifying others, and rendering some occupations obsolete. In this regard, the National Resources Committee reports that

Although technological unemployment is one of the most tragic effects of the sudden adoption of many new inventions (which may be likened to an immigration of iron men), inventions *create* jobs as well as take them away. While some technological changes have resulted in the complete elimination of occupations, even of entire industries, the same or other changes have called into being new occupations, services, and industries.³

¹ For an extended discussion of this theme, see *International Understanding through the Public-School Curriculum*, Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part II, 1937, of this Society.—*Editor*.

² For a detailed consideration of these new developments in the field of communication, see Chapter IV of the volume entitled *Technological Trends and National Policy*, cited in Footnote 1, p. 22.

³ National Resources Committee. *Op cit.*, p. 7.

The new problems of vocational choice and preparation that thus continuously confront our youth can never successfully be met by a static course of study and a guidance service that has no significant share in shaping the totality of the student's learning experiences.

g. The Problem of Unemployed Youth. The growing problem of unemployed or 'disinherited' youth is continuously giving rise to new problems for our students with which a static course of study and its supplementary guidance service are totally incapable of coping. According to the Educational Policies Commission,

Any conception of education which ignores this critical situation is false to its trust . . . This is not a question involving the mere routine of adjustment. It is a call for creative and constructive thought and action in education.¹

h. Changes in the Home. Many of the time-honored functions of the home have been assumed by other agencies. Still other of the functions carried on by the pre-industrial family which that social unit as now constituted is unable adequately to discharge have not yet been satisfactorily assumed by any agency. These facts continuously give rise to maladjustments that issue in new problems and hence new purposes for our pupils. The inherited guidance service in most schools must be radically revised, along with the rest of the traditional program, if students are to be given adequate help in meeting their needs in this regard.

The few major social changes singled out for consideration in the preceding paragraphs are representative of many others. It is of course recognized that schools vary markedly in the extent to which desirable modifications in their guidance and instructional practices have been made in the service of these new responsibilities. The nature of the desirable modifications that should be made in all schools that have not already done so will be suggested in the next section.

2. The Emergence of a More Valid Conception of Guidance

As a consequence of the considerations already discussed, a new conception of guidance is taking form in many quarters. This conception is sketched in broad outline in the paragraphs which follow.

a. The Meaning of Guidance. Guidance is coming to be regarded as that inseparable aspect of the educational process that is peculiarly

¹ *The Unique Function of Education in a Democracy.* P. 97. (Educational Policies Commission of the N. E. A.: Washington, 1937)

concerned with helping individuals discover their needs, assess their potentialities, develop their life purposes, formulate plans of action in the service of these purposes, and proceed to their realization. The total teaching process involves both guidance and instruction as these terms have commonly been employed in the past, and as inseparable functions. Neither can be delegated in any discrete manner to separate functionaries.

This assertion does not mean, however, that specialists, such as counselors, school psychologists, mental hygienists, vocational specialists, and the other workers mentioned elsewhere (Chapter X) should be done away with. On the contrary, we shall see that more, not less, help of a specialized nature than we now have will be necessary if the functional needs of students are adequately to be met. It distinctly does mean, however, that the tasks of guiding and instructing cannot legitimately be made the respective responsibilities of separate groups of educational workers.

According to this view, the classroom teacher, who has the most to do with the shaping of the student's learning experiences, must be intimately conversant with his needs, desires, and consequent purposes, and must be in large part responsible for assisting him in the formulation of his goals. This is simply another way of saying that the teacher must of necessity perform many of the diagnoses essential to a discovery of the student's needs and must work coöperatively and informally with him as a guide as well as an instructor. This study of students, as we have stressed, must be a continuous rather than a one-to-five-times-per-year process. More, not less, expert special help will be needed in making many of the more difficult types of diagnoses especially concerned with contributory goals.

Our conviction, then, is that a very vital part of counseling can be performed only by the classroom teacher. Even if more time were available to special non-teacher counselors, their counseling alone would not be very effective because they themselves could not provide, when needed, the learning experiences their counseling activities revealed as desirable. Such provision cannot be made when the functions of guidance and instruction are the responsibilities of two separate groups of workers.

It is of course obvious to every informed observer that the classroom teacher in the secondary school as traditionally organized and in the departmentalized elementary school cannot adequately perform these functions of guidance. This is equally true of the typical college

situation. In such schools the teacher or instructor is usually associated with the student only in the one subject taught by him. Furthermore, it is not unusual for the teacher in the conventional school to have one hundred fifty or more different students in one day. It is clearly impossible for the classroom teacher effectively to function as a guide to youth without some sort of administrative reorganization that will provide a coördinated, coöperative guidance service involving the entire school staff.

b. Principles Underlying the Organization for Guidance. "What might an ideal situation look like?" is a natural question at this point. Although the details of staff organization and of administration will be treated in some detail in Chapter X, we may here outline what might be regarded as an approximation to one type of an ideal program.

Ideally, there would be no such thing as a separate or self-contained guidance program. Rather, guidance and instruction would be functioning as inseparable parts of a unitary educative process. The needs of students would constitute the stuff out of which a broadly defined scope would be formulated for the school curriculum. The sequence of the experiences suggested by this scope would tentatively be determined by the best possible estimates as to the identity of the learning experiences that would prove most meaningful and most worth while on each of the various levels of maturity. (The reader will find this discussed in more detail in Chapter IX.)

This broadly defined curricular scope would constitute the charter of freedom within which all educational workers, be they teachers, teacher-counselors, special counselors, supervisors, administrators, or what not, would function. This scope would of course be modified as new discoveries in biology, psychology, and sociology make modifications desirable or necessary.

All the types of information and help formerly called 'guidance' would be provided for along with all other necessary or desirable learnings in the scope and sequence as thus coöperatively defined by the total faculty group, working in conjunction with parents and students. There would thus be no classes or courses set aside and labelled 'life-career' or 'group guidance.' The important problems formerly treated in a more or less fragmentary and 'cold-storage' manner in such courses would have become part of the very heart of the school's program. Much of what now passes for guidance content in such courses, it can easily be demonstrated, was introduced into the schools and so labelled precisely because the desirable learnings that this content afforded were

not provided for by the non-functional course of study inherited from a former day. The most casual examination of the types of information ordinarily dealt with in connection with the so-called 'informative phase' of guidance will reveal them to be functional materials variously borrowed from the social studies, the sciences, and other broad fields.

In a functional curriculum intelligently conceived within the framework of a validly defined scope and sequence formulation, in which guidance and instruction would be viewed as inseparable parts of the educative process, the learning experiences of students would be organized around meaningful life problems having a real social significance to them. These problems would grow out of the life experiences of the students, which the school, incidentally, had had a hand in shaping.

Each school would be so organized and so administered that it would be possible for one well qualified person to have intimate and continuous contacts over a series of years with a given group of say, from thirty to forty students. These teacher-counselors would serve in the composite capacity of guide, instructor, and director of instruction for their respective groups with reference to the core or common experiences afforded by the school; in addition, the special interests and needs of various groups of students (*e.g.*, for higher mathematics, technical science, etc.) would be met in specialized courses taught by specialized teachers outside of, or beyond, these core experiences. These teacher-counselors should of course be specially qualified and given sufficient time and adequate facilities to do their work effectively. Each would be assisted in discharging the inseparable functions of guidance and instruction for a given group of students by a 'team' of teachers representing respectively the various broad fields of interest and endeavor (social studies, science, language arts, practical arts, etc.) with which a functional curriculum would be concerned. A given 'team-member teacher' would of course work with more than one teacher-counselor, and hence with more than one group of thirty to forty students. Also, a given teacher-counselor might serve for a portion of the day as a 'team-member teacher' representing some one or more broad fields under some one or more other teacher-counselors.

The major responsibility for the diagnosing and the counseling, as well as for the instructing, of the students in question would thus fall to the adequately trained teacher-counselor aided by his coöperating 'team.' In addition, there would be available specialized services of a more expert nature in connection with every aspect of the work. The primary rôle of these specialized workers, however, would be that

of a teacher of teacher-counselors and teachers, and of consultant. All the diagnosing and counseling done by these specialists would definitely and intimately be coördinated with that performed by the teacher-counselor and his team of teachers.

To sum up, then, we may say that three principles would carefully be observed in schools thus attempting adequately to meet the functional needs of students through a union of guidance and instruction:

First, the teacher-counselor, working closely with the team-member representatives of the various broad fields of the curriculum who are jointly responsible with him for the growth and development of a given group of students along *all* desirable lines as defined by the scope of the curriculum, would be given the freedom, the time, and the facilities necessary continuously to diagnose these students and to assist them in self-appraisals, to the end that worthy and appropriate purposes and goals may be formulated by them. The coöperating team would have the benefit of any needed assistance from outside specialists in performing these diagnoses.

Second, the teacher-counselor and his team would have the freedom to draw upon any learning experiences falling within the scope of the school's offerings that they might deem desirable in the pursuit by their students of the purposes and goals thus formulated. In this there would be much coöperative planning by the teacher-counselor and his team for coöperative or correlated teaching. In this planning the student would play a prominent rôle. Thus students would be engaged in learning experiences that they had purposed and planned under the guidance of the teacher-counselor and his team. All students would also have a significant part in the appraising and evaluating of what was done

Third, the teacher-counselor would be given the freedom, the time, and the facilities necessary to counsel continuously and informally with the students in his group in satisfaction of their numerous unique personal perplexities and problems. Similar, though perhaps less extended, provisions would be made for such counseling by each teacher member of the team who has something of value to contribute to the resolving of any given student's problems.

The three functions — diagnosing, assisting in the developing of purposes and the formulating of goals, and providing needed functional learning experiences — would thus be viewed and discharged as intimately interrelated and inseparable parts of the total educative process. These would not be expected to occur in one-two-three order.

Rather, all would be regarded as intimately intertwined essential parts of a whole or unitary process.

Exactly how such an educational program is to be organized and administered will of course vary considerably from school to school. No one 'best' detailed plan can possibly be formulated and mechanically applied. In every situation, the plan tentatively adopted should be drawn up with a keen and critical eye to all such important conditioning factors as the preparation, ability, and willingness of teachers; physical facts of space and equipment; estimated financial outlay; the 'climate' of opinion among students and parents, and the like. In every situation, however, one of the first tasks is clearly that of engaging teachers and school patrons in the coöperative task of formulating the scope and sequence of a curriculum that should be valid for present-day and probable future democracy and that should take realistic and careful account of all of the functional needs of all students in terms of all types of desirable development.

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CHAPTER II

APPRAISAL OF STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS
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I. INTRODUCTION: THE ESSENTIAL TASK OF THE SCHOOL

Education itself, along with the schools, has too often been appraised in terms of size of the school system, cost of buildings, number of books in the library, inventory value of the equipment, the acres of grounds, landscaping, training and experience of staff members, and other tangible assets that attract the public eye. In reports and charts schoolmen are sometimes guilty of 'playing up' these aspects of the school program. But suppose the public were to make a perfectly legitimate demand by saying: "Yes, the financial report is sound, the buildings seem adequate and are pleasing to look at, the teachers are well trained, and the business management of the schools appears efficient, but just exactly what are the schools contributing to the development and growth of our children? Tell us, precisely what are they gaining by being in school that they do not get outside the classroom buildings?" How most teachers and administrators would squirm if pressed for an answer! And yet, for both adequate guidance and instruction, an answer is essential.

Any adjustment the administrator makes in the school program should be preceded by a thoroughgoing consideration of the abilities, achievements, needs, interests, and activities of the pupils, of how these characteristics have been influenced by the school environment, of the probable effects of the administrative change upon pupil behavior and habits. Suppose he wishes to make a change in personnel by replacing a sixth-grade teacher. Has the present teacher been ineffective? What

are the behavior traits of the pupils that show her ineffectiveness? For, after all, teaching can be effective or ineffective only in terms of the pupils who are being taught.

Likewise, any change in the course of study assumes probable future changes in the behavior of children. What types of growth have the old courses of study encouraged or actually induced? In what ways did they stifle development that now seems essential? How will pupils act, feel, or think differently because they have been educated in the new schools operating with a broader curriculum and in terms of a more dynamic social philosophy; how will they differ from those of older generations who grew and developed under a course of study consisting primarily of reading, writing, arithmetic, other skills and subject matter? Of what value is a new curriculum unless it brings about more significant changes in the lives of children for whom it is set up?

Similar questions can be raised concerning the value of the teacher. Experts in the field of guidance have long felt the need for teachers with sufficient technical training to serve also as counselors. Now that schools are employing teacher-counselors, what is the effect of their work upon the behavior patterns of pupils? Again, how do these pupils differ from others in schools where there are no technically trained and sympathetic counselors? Have these children made, and will they continue to make, more satisfactory personal, social, and educational adjustments? Do they better understand themselves — their abilities, their achievements, their interests, their desires, their emotional life, their esthetic impulses, their actions — because they have come under the influence of a trained counselor? These are crucial questions that every guidance worker must face if he is perfectly honest with himself, with his students, and with their parents. He cannot, as some are prone to do, dismiss the problem of evaluation with such an implicit Jehovah-like, egocentric faith in himself and what he is doing that he never questions the effectiveness of his work or program. Nor can he truthfully say, if he is informed concerning the developments in the field of measurement, that all tests are worthless and that any attempt to evaluate focuses attention upon fragments of the child's total experiences when education must concentrate upon the 'whole child.' As a matter of fact, emphasis upon the 'whole child' is nothing more than a stress upon as many aspects of the child's development as educators can conceive; not an over-emphasis upon one trait to the exclusion of others. It is, therefore, not inimical to a sound theory of measurement. In thought, this tendency has had a long history; in practice, a short one.

In measurement, however, emphasis has been placed upon a few traits that could be observed rather easily while others were ignored. Fortunately for the guidance worker, a new day has arrived when each test or observation is used for what it is worth with full awareness of its limitations; when attempts are being made to appraise all directions of growth; when a lack of techniques to observe important developments of the child is fully recognized and efforts are put forth not to ignore these developments in the educational process; and when teachers, counselors, school administrators, and test technicians are acquiring a new philosophy of measurement that calls for a program of continuous appraisal of pupils' needs, achievements, and adjustments by the best available methods.

Although this new concept of measurement and evaluation pervades all aspects of the school system, the following sections of this chapter will deal particularly with its application to counseling and guidance. They will provide the teacher-counselor with a critical review of the techniques available to appraise students, the use of which should yield a better mutual understanding, so that counseling may proceed more effectively. The various phases of the total problem will be discussed in this chapter and the next, in the following order: (a) kinds of information about students, (b) techniques for securing information regarding students, (c) a critical evaluation of customary methods of diagnosis and self-appraisal, (d) interpretation and clinical use of diagnostic techniques, (e) appraisal as a continuous process, and (f) appraising aspects of student achievement (in Chapter III).

II. KINDS OF INFORMATION ABOUT STUDENTS

A basic principle of guidance and of the educational program as it has been discussed in Chapter I is that much information about students must be secured if we are to plan educational processes to meet their needs. Information gained from a cross-section of their present status of needs, abilities, and interests must be supplemented by genetic or developmental studies that give the background and development of this present status. In the paragraphs to follow there will be no distinction drawn between cross-section and genetic studies of the student, since the two approaches are to be considered as mutually self-supporting. For example, a low home-adjustment score on the *Bell Adjustment Inventory* must be interpreted through home observation, interviews with the student and with parents, and possibly reference to the case-history blank. On the other hand, one may be able to inter-

pret the history of poor school achievement and social maladjustment through information secured on the *Adjustment Inventory*.

The chief kinds of information that must be studied in order that counselor or teacher may understand the student and the student understand himself are:

1. The record of his previous school experience
2. His aptitudes and abilities
3. His home background and community environment
4. His goals and purposes
5. His interests, likes, and dislikes
6. His social development and adjustment
7. His emotional status
8. His health record and present health status
9. His economic and financial status

These nine kinds of information will next be considered in order.

1. Previous School Experience

Previous school experience is important for an understanding of the present status of the pupil and for the prediction of his future development. Numerous studies have indicated the close relation between previous school grades and academic standing in the school of present residence, whether in the junior high school, the senior high school, or the college. Strang¹ summarizes a variety of such studies and quotes correlation coefficients of from .48 to .81 between average high-school marks and average college marks. Lee² briefly discusses the relationship of elementary-school marks and high-school marks. All studies have pointed to the value of using several criteria for prediction, such as a combination of school marks, intelligence tests, and personality ratings.

This emphasis upon prediction should not be misunderstood. A close relation between previous school marks and present marks merely means that (1) grades are being stressed as the important factor of school experience and (2) the methods and materials of each school unit are similar to those of succeeding units. As will be noted in Section IV of this chapter, both of these emphases are subject to severe criticism.

There is much more than meets the eye on even the most formal of

¹ Ruth Strang *Personal Development and Guidance in College and Secondary School*. Pp 92-110. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1934)

² J. M. Lee. *A Guide to Measurement in the Secondary Schools*. Pp. 77-80. (D. Appleton-Century Company. New York, 1936)

school record cards. The student's response to certain courses and to certain teachers, his high and his low areas of achievement, the consistency with which these high and low levels are maintained, evidences of growth and maturity in his response to class work, the extent to which he has achieved in proportion to assumed or tested general ability and cultural background — all these, and more, can be read from the academic record and can be compared with other information about the student. Grades are seldom important in themselves. The 'average' grade is an artifact, since all students are 'normal' within the boundaries of their abilities and opportunities. A grade of 'D' is as 'normal' for one student as a grade of 'C' for another. The real value of a study of grades and academic records is what they may reveal about uniqueness of character and personality, about growth, and about needs.

If records of them exist, the student's previous extra-classroom activities should be studied as a phase, and often a most important one, of his previous school curriculum. If such records do not exist, then a student inventory sheet often supplies even more than would the records. The totality of a student's previous school experience is the important consideration, since a single phase of this experience, classroom work, cannot be interpreted apart from the whole.

The value of a study of previous school experience must not be underestimated. We give lip service to the use of previous records, but often we study them very superficially. In addition to the records themselves, information from case-history and student-inventory blanks and from teacher ratings are valuable sources to be used, the nature and critical use of which will be discussed later in this chapter.

2. Aptitudes and Abilities

The importance of this kind of information is so obvious that it needs only small mention. The variety and nature of these aptitudes and abilities is such, however, that considerable attention should be devoted to the topic. In the first place, aptitudes and abilities are linked together here because it is not wise to attempt to distinguish between them on the theoretical ground that the first connotes innate capacity and the second, capacity plus training.

Bingham, in his recent book ¹ on the subject, has taken a pronounced stand in this matter. He makes no attempt to distinguish between innate and learned factors in aptitudes. As he wisely states, we are

¹ W. V. Bingham. *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing*. Pp. 16-23. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1937)

primarily interested in a student's characteristics *as they now are* and as they are indicative of future potentialities. 'Ability' may be defined as more easily measurable than aptitude, as more specific in nature, and as consisting of "the power to make specific responses." 'Aptitude' is a more inclusive term, with the possibility of several abilities entering into aptitude for this or that. It implies more than actual and potential abilities, since 'aptitude for something' connotes general fitness for the vocation or activity in question, to be measured in terms of capacity for learning the necessary abilities and satisfactions resulting from the experience. In fact, one might think of 'aptitudes' as such an inclusive term that all other sources of information contribute to their determination.

The practical implication of these definitions lies in the necessity for the teacher-counselor, administrator, or guidance specialist to see that aptitude for any task consists of a constellation of factors. No single factor or measuring instrument can fully predict aptitude, unless it be 'aptitude' for a specific skill or ability, or prediction of aptitude for a task that has carefully set boundary lines and specifically stated limitations. Aptitude for school achievement, for example, consists of more than mental capacity. The presence or absence of certain study skills, persistence factors in learning, motivation or purposes in learning, satisfactions to be derived, and cultural background are all significant determiners of aptitude for academic achievement.

The discernment of vocational aptitude is even more complex, for here the constellation of factors entering into aptitude must distinguish between prediction of success in the *training* program required for entrance into the vocation and success *in the vocation itself*. Many a so-called 'measure of vocational aptitude' has been validated against grades in academic training curricula and a false or incomplete assumption is thereby encouraged. The difficulty of securing an adequate criterion of vocational 'success' or achievement is a well-recognized problem for the vocational psychologist.

One further basic statement remains to be made. This has been well expressed by Bingham:

To repeat: aptitude tests do not directly measure future accomplishment. They make no such pretense. They measure present performance. Then, *in so far as behavior, past and present, is known to be symptomatic of future potentialities, the estimate is necessarily in terms of probabilities only.*¹

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

Techniques for securing information about student aptitudes and abilities are manifold. Academic records are valuable but must be interpreted cautiously, since motivation for school work, teaching methods, immediacy of the interests tapped, and other factors are reflected in the reported grade. There is no one-to-one relation between grades and aptitude for learning. Tests for determining general aptitude (intelligence), school success, vocational success, and the like provide another technique that is to be critically discussed a few pages farther on. Rating scales and other personality measures, student and parent inventories, and autobiographical material, all aid in indicating incidental aptitude factors and the motivation, or drive, that vitally affects the realization of potential aptitude. Specific school-subject abilities are rather simply determined through achievement records, achievement tests, and prognostic tests, but the measurement of the basic skills and attitudes that enter into the more complex aptitudes is a more fundamental and difficult matter.

The emphasis that has just been given to the determination of student *strengths* and *abilities* has been deliberately designed to take precedence over the traditional school emphasis upon weaknesses and disabilities. More constructive assistance can be given to students by building in them a sense of self-confidence and a knowledge of achievement possibilities than by the opposing method of constantly (often with a superior, adult attitude) pointing to what a student cannot do and should learn to do. This student understanding of strengths, however, must be accompanied by equal insight into limitations and significant disabilities.

There are educational and vocational limits for almost every student. These may be inadequate general mental aptitude, specific subject handicaps, physical limitations, racial barriers, or economic limitations as to the amount of training that can be secured. The story is told of a Negro youth who was encouraged to enter the vocational training course in preparation for becoming a tinsmith. He had the requisite mechanical aptitude and liked the work. After four years in a vocational high school he (and his counselor!) learned that labor organization regulations in that section of the country barred him from practicing the trade for which he had trained. It is vital to understand the social setting of a vocation or of an educational institution. A student does not enter a high school or a college in isolation; rather, he becomes a member of a social group. Not to appreciate the racial or economic barriers set up by the group (not all schools and colleges in

America function democratically) is to court frustration and disaster. Nor does a student prepare for a vocation *per se*; he prepares for living in a certain physical and social milieu. Health and physical strength may be limiting factors as great as lack of adequate intelligence. Likewise reading disabilities, poor study skills, or lack of consistent purpose are to be considered school disabilities. Limitations and disabilities need diagnosis, recognition, and possibly treatment if the school is to develop student insight into the facing of realities.

3. Home Background and Community Environment

The recent attention given to principles of *Gestalt* psychology has assisted in further focussing emphasis upon seeing the student *in* his environment. It is not possible to appraise him otherwise, since he never exists apart from it. This means that grades or tests cannot be interpreted except in the light of total school, home, and community environment. It means, practically, that the teacher or counselor cannot understand any classroom or school activity of the student without an awareness of the out-of-school influences affecting him.

Much more attention has been given to information concerning the home of the pupil at the elementary-school than at the secondary-school and the college levels. This seems to be based upon an assumption that the school must attempt to bridge the gap between the home and first few years of school by achieving more home contacts. If this is all that is assumed, then the necessity for home contacts becomes less as the child grows older and more self-reliant. This, however, is a minor consideration in comparison with the more fundamental one that student appraisal cannot be made at any level without taking into account home and community environment. Nor should the home itself receive more attention than the community. Often the geography, rural or urban nature, and economic level of a community go far to explain student behavior and current levels of abilities, interests, and social development.

Many college students have a tremendous adjustment to make in shifting from their home communities to a college campus. Two instances come to mind: one, a boy who arrived on the Stanford campus from the mountains of northern California; the other, a boy who came to the University of Minnesota from the woods and lakes region of northern Minnesota. Not only were these lads uncouth and uncomfortable in the more sophisticated atmosphere of a college campus, but they were also acutely lonely for their trees and mountains, for the

spaciousness and quiet of their "hills of home." Their entire college experience was inexplicable apart from this background. The sequel may be interesting. One lad went from bad to worse in his loneliness and unhappiness and became so pronounced a schizophrenic that he had to be sent home and finally to an institution. The writer still has some of his wistful and crude attempts at poetry. The other boy, after some terrific struggles alone, was 'discovered' and taken into a faculty family where the conflict was lessened through sympathy and discussion. He became interested in college journalism — a far cry from woods and hills! — and developed into a forceful student. The first boy's home background was poor, with foreign parentage and a history of neurotic tendencies and an unsympathetic father. The second boy was from a home of some culture in a small town where the father was editor of the weekly newspaper and a man of homely wisdom and kindness. In such instances as these, both community environment and home influence were important and supplementary factors in the total situation of the student and his life in school.

Information of the sort under discussion may best be secured through direct home contacts and visits with parents in home or school. For ordinary use, a formal rating blank, such as the Sims Score Card for Socio-Economic Status, the Chapin Home and Social Environment Rating Scale, or the Whittier Scale of Grading Home Conditions, is not advocated. These are most valuable for research studies or for analysis of cases needing intensive attention. The visiting teacher has been appointed in many places, but her work is often restricted to 'problem cases.' Furthermore, unless what she learns is shared completely with other teachers, one great value of the information is not realized.

If direct home contacts cannot be secured, then the use of an inventory blank to be filled out by the student or an inventory blank for the parents, autobiographical material, information secured by the school nurse and physician, or what is learned from casual references made by a student's associates, are possible approaches. The school census, too, is a normal and effective approach to at least brief home introductions.

A student's friends and associates have been mentioned as a source of information about his social adjustment or financial difficulties. But they are more than mere sources of information, since they form an important element in the student's environment. The influence of associates has been frequently mentioned in delinquency studies, but it should be recognized as an equally important influence for good. An

examination of a student's friends may reveal much as to his social development, compensations, and frustrations. By the same token, introducing new associates into his environment may be the best possible therapy.

4. Goals and Purposes of Students

The development of student goals and purposes is all-important to the educational philosophy presented in this Yearbook. A student's goal is central to all that takes place in his educational experience. Information regarding present goals therefore becomes vital as an approach to better motivation and the development of a more adequate purpose-pattern. Teacher-goals are often erroneously assumed to be pupil-goals, but an educational program based upon such an assumption is not the concern of this Yearbook.

Purposes and goals may be specific and immediate, or central and more remote. The former are often neglected at a time when the student is being admonished to make a far-reaching educational, vocational, or life decision. Such decisions are not events, but processes, and the immediate goals, interests, and needs of the student contribute largely to their development.

There has been emphasis upon making a 'goal' mean a 'vocational goal.' This is largely the result of a money-value emphasis on education that often completely nullifies the personality development and deep-seated personal values that should be inherent in the educational experience of the student. Studies of the vocational decisions of students are legion and somewhat meaningless. It would be much more significant to study the specific needs, interests, and purposes of students, so that, through a curriculum consisting of meaningful experiences, diagnosis, and counseling, they might develop a consistent and socially justified life pattern.¹ Hopelessly high ambitions and those that act as compensation for poor social background, poor academic achievement, and frustrated parents need the most careful attention.² They are as significant symptoms of future ineffectiveness and social maladjustment as a high temperature or severe pains are symptoms of physical malfunctioning.

Techniques for the discovery of student purposes and goals may

¹ C. Gilbert Wrenn. "Vocational guidance and the college curriculum." *Occupations*, 16: October, 1937, 36-40.

² C. Gilbert Wrenn, Leonard Ferguson, and John Kennedy. "Intelligence level and personality." *Journal of Social Psychology*, 7: August, 1936, 301-308.

include the use of practically all those discussed later in Section III. In particular, the interview, inventory blank, autobiographical material, and observation are valuable. Since the guidance and counseling program as a whole is devoted to the development of student purpose, the steps in the process can be thought of as (1) discovery of present specific purposes and central goals, (2) the use of these goals in making the educational experience more meaningful, and (3) the development of student insight into the necessity for a consistent pattern of far-reaching goals.

The development of student insight is one of the most important functions of education. It should here be clearly stated that much of the labor involved in student appraisal is lost unless this information is used to assist the student to an understanding of himself. Guidance is based upon *student self-determination*, and this in turn is dependent upon information with which to develop insight as to capacities and goals.

5. Interests, Likes and Dislikes

Interests are a rather homely and familiar topic since these personal reactions enter into so much of everyday life. And that is just why the matter is introduced here. A student's immediate interests and antipathies go far to explain why he does well in this situation and poorly in that one. A teacher or counselor must be acquainted with the pattern of interests of a given student if he is to help him gain insight into what might be the most valuable school experiences. Here are two students: the one, a boy who has an intense interest in science and invention, the other, a boy who is curious about people and their motives. It should be easy to see how the respective interests of these two students can be utilized in discussing such topics as the Industrial Revolution, the World War, or the present labor situation, in considering club activities designed to improve the school, or in planning a year's educational program and helping each boy to select the courses and school experiences most valuable to him.

This broader use of the term 'interests' has been mentioned first since the common concept of interests is expressed in the question: "What vocation are you interested in entering?" The commonly conceived vocational interest or vocational choice is often quite temporary and based upon the slightest of information. Fryer's well-known review of interest measurement¹ does not give much encouragement to the

¹ Douglas Fryer *The Measurement of Interest in Relation to Human Adjustment*. (Henry Holt and Co.: New York, 1931. 488 pp.)

view that simple statements of choice of vocational or educational future are to be considered as permanent or valid.

A *pattern* of interests as measured by any one of several tests, such as the Strong *Vocational Interest Blank* or the Garretson-Symonds *Interest Questionnaire for High-School Students*, is a much more valuable measure than is a single stated like or dislike. These patterns or cores of interests provide a very significant basis for counseling. Their measurement is discussed in Section III of this chapter.

6. Social Development and Adjustment

A student's social adjustment often has been given serious consideration *only* when maladjustment is noted. One student once rather pathetically asked of the writer, "Do I *always* have to get into trouble before someone knows that I exist?" As a consequence of this attitude, much of the attention given to the social side of a student's development has been in the nature of regulations and restrictions that will prevent him from getting into trouble.

This situation is entirely indefensible. Information about the extent to which a student finds satisfactions in his relations with fellow-students, and also the degree of his awareness of social responsibility and of the social implications of his experiences, are vital matters for the teacher and counselor.

Information can be secured through the use of a variety of adjustment inventories (discussed in Section III). Observation of social relations in the school, classroom awareness of social factors, and symptoms of emotional disturbance arising from social maladjustment are other means to be used (see Chapter VII). Student inventories and activity records that show the extent of participation and the satisfactions derived from taking part furnish another means of gauging social development.¹ Clues are picked up every day if one has eyes to see the importance of 'social sensitivity'² and growth in the effectiveness of social relations.

7. Emotional Status

Since Chapter VII of this Yearbook is devoted to "Guidance in Personality Development," we need here merely to refer to the topic as one

¹ H. C. Link "A test of four personality traits of adolescents" *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 20: October, 1936, 538.

² Hilda Taba. *Social Sensitivity*. Progressive Education Association Commission on Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study. (Ohio State University: Columbus, Ohio, 1936. Mimeographed. 50 pp.)

important kind of information about the student. Tests and inventories designed to 'measure' emotional stability must always operate by indirection. Inferences are based upon what the student *says*, not upon what he *does*. Much can be done through trained observation to recognize early symptoms of maladjustment. Treatment must often rest with specialists, since the factors involving emotional balance are delicate, indeed. Much can be done by the 'generalist' in seeing that mentally healthy classroom and school conditions surround the student. This prophylactic emphasis affects by change of environment such matters as pressure on the student to maintain a certain scholastic average, a fixed curriculum for all, teacher attitude and tolerance, and many other everyday influences, the importance of which in determining emotional health cannot be overestimated. There is often more 'information about' student maladjustment than there is intelligent effort to prevent it.

8. Health Record and Present Health

Primary information from the health record can probably be interpreted only by the school physician or nurse. Recommendation from them should be sought for every student in whom physical condition may affect school behavior. Such conditions as glandular malfunctioning, low basal metabolism, uncorrected vision, and malnutrition should be given as careful attention as the more common matters of heart, lungs, and dental conditions. In fact, the former often have a much closer relation to classroom behavior than the latter do. Teachers and counselors must be on the alert to recognize physical symptoms and to have the child report to a physician at once. Nervousness, apathy, scowling, tics, sallow or spotty complexions, and such matters can be observed every day in the classroom and may be symptoms of very great significance.

Physical handicaps, whether of a specific nature or relating to general physical build and vitality, are of significance also in vocational choice and in considering the physical strain involved in certain highly competitive training programs like law and medicine.

A second type of health information is the student's reaction to his own health history. One section of the Bell *Adjustment Inventory* is devoted to this, as are certain phases of the studies in adolescence being conducted by the General College of the University of Minnesota and the Progressive Education Association. The tendency to overemphasize one's health history and symptoms, known as hypochondria, is perhaps more often found among teachers than among pupils! It is in any

case a mentally unhealthy attitude indicative of undue self-centeredness.

Health and school records, observation, periodic health examinations, and student inventories are the techniques most widely used to secure information on student health.

9. Economic and Financial Status

The general economic status of the family is a matter of concern for teachers and counselors from kindergarten through college. It affects the cultural benefits in the home and is often an indirect measure of such cultural influences as family sympathy with the school, adequate opportunities for home study, and number of books and magazines in the home. Economic status, although there are striking exceptions, affects a child's feeling of self-respect among his fellows and influences his plans for the continuance of education.

The immediate financial problem of students is, of course, more important in the high school and the college. A particularly pertinent discussion of this for college students or for students planning on college is found in Williamson and Darley¹ in a chapter devoted to six aspects of student problems: financial, educational, vocational, social-emotional-personal, family, and health. A considerable amount of self-support in the high school or the college often involves experiences educationally valuable but may seriously limit the time permitted for other educational opportunities, or impair health. It is no longer wise to encourage students to go to college on a completely or largely self-supporting basis unless certain factors are taken into account; such matters as health, mental level, the effectiveness of study habits, the presence or absence of job skills that will enable the student to secure sufficient income without spending too many hours per day on the job, and the possession of enough money to carry through the transition period of the first semester or first year are illustrations. All these factors determine how many hours per day the student will have left for study and participation in the extra-classroom activities so necessary for a rounded educational experience.

III. TECHNIQUES FOR SECURING INFORMATION ABOUT STUDENTS

A traveler who desires to reach a given city by tomorrow morning might go by train, airplane, or car. His choice depends upon a number

¹ E. G. Williamson and G. J. Darley. *Student Personnel Work*. Pp. 183-189. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1937)

of factors, such as distance, speed, ease, reliability, and economy. Or a teacher might wish to present to a class the salient features of a racial problem. His method, depending upon familiarity, availability, economy, and validity for a given group of students, might be a novel on a racial issue, a presentation of facts and problems followed by class discussion, an attitude test on racial equality followed by discussion, a talk by a Negro or a Chinaman, or a trip to a racially segregated area of the city. He might use any one of these methods in combination with others. Techniques, as discussed in this chapter, are intelligent, and presumably reliable, means of reaching desired ends. They are never, except for research study, ends in themselves. The counselor rarely holds interviews, gives tests, or makes ratings save to secure information or help students.

The technique to be used depends upon its validity for securing the information desired, economy of time and money, and skill in administering and interpreting it. The techniques to be discussed are these: (1) tests, (2) records, (3) rating scales, (4) inventories of information, (5) observation, (6) autobiographical material, (7) interviews, and (8) case histories.

Each technique will be analyzed and its usefulness and limitations suggested. In many instances, it will be understood, the selection and administration of such instruments as tests must be reserved for technicians well-trained in clinical psychology and psychometrics. Certain characteristics and limitations of diagnostic methods will be treated in Section IV.

1. Tests

The history of testing in the United States is revealing. In the 1920's, following the use of group intelligence tests in the World War, there was a strong surge of interest in tests. Few persons, however, were well enough trained to understand their use and limitations and hence tests became a sort of panacea for all educational ills, and the testing movement became an educational fad. This was not the fault of many leaders in test construction, who unavailingly counseled a careful and discriminating use of such instruments and were themselves well aware of crudities of construction and limitations of function. The inevitable reaction set in and standardized tests were heartily condemned, often by the same school authorities who had been using them so indiscriminately. The term 'mental tester' became something of an opprobrium. The depression helped along the reaction, since the lack of money led to much rationalization as to why tests should not be used.

More and better tests are commercially available than ever before. Not to use them because of prejudice would be analogous to a surgeon's refusing to buy certain new and valuable instruments designed to reduce operation trauma or mortality percentages, because he didn't like the metal they were made of or the name given to them. The solution lies in a *trained and discriminating* use of these invaluable instruments of diagnosis. Many tests on the market are valid for one purpose but invalid for another, are reliable measures when properly used but easily abused and misused as educational tools, or contain valuable clues and significant indications when rightly interpreted but become ridiculous and dangerous when misunderstood. For example, the teacher who thought a student was a moron because he had a score of 60 on the *Otis Self-Administering Test* (confusing it with I. Q.), the teacher who attempted to force all her pupils in a small school up to the average of the national norms of a standardized achievement test, the teacher who used the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory* and then interpreted all high scores as 'good' and low scores as 'bad'—such teachers as these are dangerous in any school and should not be allowed at large with test materials!

The number of tests available is bewilderingly large. Lee has listed 610 commercially available tests useful in the secondary-school on the market in 1932.¹ He further analyzed the publication dates of high-school tests (excluding the junior high school) and found the number of tests published year by year as follows:

1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
13	17	18	22	27	23	45	43	60	52	41	37

Hildreth's 1933 *Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*² contains 173 pages of test references, or about 3400 tests and test research references, classified under 64 headings. The bibliography published by Rutgers University lists 503 educational, psychological, and personality tests published between 1933 and 1935.³

What will be discussed here are the broad divisions of tests with il-

¹ J. M. Lee. *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools*. Pp. 11-15. (D. Appleton-Century Co. New York, 1936)

² Gertrude H. Hildreth. *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*. (Psychological Corporation: New York, 1933. 242 pp.)

³ Oscar K. Buros. *Educational, Psychological and Personality Tests of 1933, 1934, and 1935*. (School of Education, Rutgers University: New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1936. 83 pp.)

illustrations of each type and suggested uses. The classification used is a simple, pragmatic one: (a) tests of intelligence and general scholastic aptitude, (b) tests of achievement and educational processes, (c) tests of personality, attitudes, interests, and character, (d) tests of vocational aptitudes and skills, and (e) guidance tests and inventories. No attempt will be made to classify every published test under one of these five divisions, but within them will be found practically all tests used by the teacher and counselor. The bibliography at the end of the chapter contains references to test bibliographies for different school levels.

a. Intelligence Tests. Tests of intelligence are among the oldest of published tests. Their function is to measure potential capacity for intellectual work, or the ability to learn in a school situation. Without entering into a discussion of the nature of intelligence, two statements are pertinent: (1) the quotation from Bingham in Section I, 2 of this chapter should be recalled to make clear the meaning of 'capacity'; and (2) it should be stressed that, for educational workers, tests of intelligence and scholastic aptitude are most significant, insofar as they indicate capacity for school work. Most so-called tests of 'intelligence' should be called tests of 'scholastic aptitude' when used for school purposes. Educational workers are not interested in intelligence *per se* in the schools and much harm has been done by talking too glibly of it as though 'intelligence' were as well-defined a concept as color of hair or height. Educational workers are prone to the weakness of permitting high-sounding technical phrases to trip from their tongues as smoothly as though their meanings were clearly known.

Teachers and users of tests should also be thoroughly alert to the significance of what Kelley called the 'jangle fallacy'¹ wherein the terms 'achievement' and 'intelligence' sound as though they were separate concepts. They 'jangle' differently; therefore we assume that they *are* different. Kelley's research, cited in the reference just given, leads him to believe that there is at least 90 percent community of function between 'intelligence' tests and 'achievement test batteries.'

There is an apparent swing toward using 'batteries' of achievement tests either to replace or to supplement group-intelligence tests. There is as yet no adequate substitute for the individual intelligence test, of

¹ T. L. Kelley. *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. Pp. 62-64 and 206-208. (World Book Company: Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1927)

which the new revision of the Stanford-Binet is the most adequate.¹ Some recent achievement-test batteries are the Metropolitan, New Stanford, Progressive, Modern, and Sones-Harry Achievement tests and the Unit Scales of Attainment, all described by Lee (see Bibliography); the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills for Grades VI-VIII, listed by Buros (see Bibliography); and the Coöperative Tests for College and High School (New York, Coöperative Test Service).

Intelligence tests are often utilized in vocational guidance. Their use is valid provided supplementary information is available. Negative counseling away from a poorly chosen objective, sometimes called 'downgrading' of vocational ambition, frequently hinges upon the ability revealed in an intelligence test. This is a dangerous procedure unless proper safeguarding is provided against student frustration, generalizations about vocational demands, and too great dependence upon score alone. Two recent publications on occupational information are cited; the first, a fundamental research study, the second, an excellent text for high-school and college students, in which occupations are grouped functionally and many factual data are given.² Intelligence level is an important factor also in the degree of consideration to be given to stated vocational choice.³

The chief use of intelligence tests or achievement-test batteries is for the determination of general scholastic aptitude, or capacity for achieving in school. The serious limitations of such tests will be discussed in Section IV. They serve a definite and constructive purpose and no harm is done, if adequate supplementary measures are secured and if the limited service the test can perform under an educational philosophy that considers more than intellectual training is well recognized.

b. Achievement Tests. Achievement tests have already been considered and will be given even more extensive treatment in Chapter III. They form the largest segment of published tests, partly as the result of undue emphasis upon subject matter *per se*. Construction by teach-

¹ Lewis M. Terman and Maud A. Merrill. *Measuring Intelligence*. (Houghton-Mifflin Company: New York, 1937.) The test is discussed as a whole on pp. 1-71, with a description and partial reproduction of the test on the pages following.

² P. E. Davidson and H. D. Anderson. *Occupational Mobility*. (Stanford University Press: Stanford University, 1937. 203 pp.)

E. G. Williamson. *Students and Occupations*. (Henry Holt and Company: New York, 1937. 437 pp)

³ C. Gilbert Wrenn. "Intelligence and the vocational choices of college students." *Educational Record*, 16: April, 1935, 217-219.

ers of achievement tests designed to measure the locally determined outcomes of courses and subject-fields is well discussed by Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann (see Selected References), by Tyler,¹ and by Eurich and Johnson.²

c. Personality Tests. Attempts to measure non-intellectual characteristics have proved baffling, partly because of the difficulty of securing adequate criteria of validity, which must be behavior or conduct, and partly because so little can be measured directly and so much must be measured by inference. Shaffer, in an excellent discussion of this topic, indicates that present measurements of personality use the same three methods that have been used since early times: (1) *observing* the individual, (2) *asking others* questions about him, and (3) *questioning him* concerning his attitudes and beliefs.³ Refinements of the method of observation result in *tests*, such as the Porteus Maze Test or the Harts-horne-May Tests of Character. *Rating scales* are a refinement of asking others about an individual, while the refinement of our third method, questioning people about themselves, has resulted in the *personality questionnaire*. Since rating scales and various types of tests are given separate treatment, the discussion here will be limited to questionnaires.

Any method of questioning people about their attitudes and behavior is subject to considerable error of inference. Is a person *honest* in what he says about himself; *i.e.*, does he deliberately falsify or present his best side? Does what he *says* about himself correspond with his *behavior*; *i.e.*, may he be self-deluded about his attitudes and habits? The personality questionnaire is the most widely used method of personality determination and likewise the most abused. Here, as in intelligence testing, whatever a questionnaire measures is given a *trait-name*, and thereafter teachers use that term just as though they understood its full implications or were sure that the test measured what the name implies.

'Traits,' however, may overlap, and what is called one trait may contain a large measure of another trait. Bernreuter, for example, found that so-called 'introversion' correlated very highly with so-

¹ Ralph W. Tyler. *Constructing Achievement Tests*. (Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University: Columbus, Ohio, 1934. 102 pp.)

² Committee on Educational Research. *The Effective General College Curriculum as Revealed by Examination*, Chapter III. (University of Minnesota Press: Minneapolis, 1937)

³ L. F. Shaffer. *The Psychology of Adjustment*. Pp. 291-292. (Houghton-Mifflin Company: Boston, 1936)

called 'neurotic tendency.' It is at this point that the technique of factor analysis has been applied to personality measures with great advantage. Flanagan¹ found that the 125 items of the Bernreuter test, designed to measure four traits, measured four traits, but not the ones designated by Bernreuter, and that 96 percent of the weight was assigned to two factors, or traits, while the other two were practically insignificant. Flanagan promptly grouped the most significant questions from the Bernreuter test, 'named' his two traits and made a test out of them! These two traits, called *self-confidence* and *sociability*, are relatively independent, however, a thing we could not have been assured of without factor analysis.

A related type of measure, but one far more useful in counseling, is Bell's *Adjustment Inventory*. It is more useful because 'areas' of adjustment replace trait terms, so that results can be thought of as degree of adjustment in 'home,' 'social,' 'health,' and 'emotional' spheres. It is validated against 'well' and 'poorly' adjusted students as selected by teachers; this gives it an advantage over a test validated by the criterion of internal consistency alone. For counseling purposes it is vital to know something of the areas of adjustment or maladjustment, whereas the labeling of a student with a rather dubiously validated trait may be more harmful than helpful.

The Symonds-Block *Student Questionnaire* is another measure of adjustment, or degree of satisfaction, with various phases of the student's life, the school curriculum, teachers, fellow-students, and home life. To illustrate two methods of securing such information, the directions and a few questions are given from the Bell and the Symonds-Block blanks.

1.

THE ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY²

by Hugh M. Bell

Directions

Are you interested in knowing more about your own personality? If you will answer *honestly* and *thoughtfully* all the questions on the pages that follow, it will be possible for you to obtain a better understanding of yourself.

There are no right or wrong answers. Indicate your answer to each question

¹ J. C. Flanagan. *Factor Analysis in the Study of Personality*. (Stanford University Press: Stanford University, 1935. 103 pp.)

² Hugh M. Bell. *The Adjustment Inventory*. (Stanford University Press: Stanford University, 1934.) For high school and college.

by drawing a circle around the "Yes," the "No," or the "?". Use the question mark only when you are certain that you cannot answer "Yes" or "No." There is no time limit, but work rapidly.

If you have *not* been living with your parents, answer certain of the questions with regard to the people with whom you have been living.

- Yes No ? Do you daydream frequently?
 Yes No ? Do you enjoy social gatherings just to be with people?
 Yes No ? Did you ever have a strong desire to run away from home?
 Yes No ? Has either of your parents insisted on your obeying him or her regardless of whether or not the request was reasonable?
 Yes No ? Do you find it easy to ask others for help?
 Yes No ? Is either of your parents very easily irritated?
 Yes No ? Have you frequently been depressed because of low marks in school?
 Yes No ? Do you frequently have spells of dizziness?
 Yes No ? Do you often feel fatigued when you get up in the morning?

2.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE¹

by Percival M. Symonds and Virginia Lee Block

Every student is probably satisfied with many of the conditions at home and in school. It is also probably true that there is no student who is entirely satisfied with all the conditions at home and in school. A number of statements concerning your feelings relative to home and school affairs have been printed below. Each statement is expressed in 5 different ways to indicate (to tell) 5 different ways which you might feel about the situation.

Directions

Read each sentence through carefully and decide which *one* of the five statements best expresses the way you feel. When you have come to a decision, write the number of the sentence which best expresses your feelings in the brackets which have been provided for this purpose in the left-hand margin of the page. Answer *every* question. There are two sample statements given below. Read these through very carefully before you begin and note how the numbers of the sentences selected have been written in the brackets in the left-hand margin. [Samples omitted]

- () 1 *All* of my subjects will be helpful to me after I leave high school.
 2 *Most* of my subjects will be helpful to me after I leave high school.
 3 *Some* of my subjects will be helpful to me after I leave high school.

¹ Percival M. Symonds and Virginia Lee Block. *Student Questionnaire*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York City, 1936.) For junior and senior high schools.

- 4 A *very few* of my subjects will be helpful to me after I leave high school.
 - 5 *Not a single one* of my subjects will be helpful to me after I leave high school.
- ()
- 1 I am not a welcome member in *any* school club or other student organization.
 - 2 In *many* of the clubs and other student organizations I am not a welcome member.
 - 3 In a *few* of the clubs and other student organizations I am not a welcome member.
 - 4 In *one* of the clubs and other student organizations I am not a welcome member.
 - 5 I am a welcome member in *all* of the clubs and other student organizations.
- ()
- 1 My teachers *never* have any favorites and treat everyone the same.
 - 2 My teachers *seldom* give the pupils a chance to become favorites.
 - 3 *Some* of my teachers sometimes have favorites.
 - 4 *Many* of my teachers have favorites.
 - 5 *All* of my teachers have favorites to whom they give special attention.
- ()
- 1 Pupils in general tend to give me *very much more* credit than I deserve.
 - 2 Pupils in general tend to give me *more* credit than I deserve.
 - 3 Pupils in general tend to give me *all* the credit I deserve.
 - 4 Pupils in general tend to give me *less* credit than I deserve.
 - 5 Pupils in general tend to give me *very much less* credit than I deserve.

If space permitted one would normally discuss, in addition to the Bernreuter, Bell, and Symonds-Block tests, such adjustment and attitude questionnaires as Symonds' *What Kind of a Year Are You Having?*, Maller's *Character Sketches*, Thurstone's *Attitude Scales*, Rundquist-Sletto's *Minnesota Scale for the Survey of Opinions*, Tomlin's *The Best Thing To Do*, Furfey's *Developmental Age Test*, Thurstone's *Personality Schedule*, and Willoughby's *Emotional Maturity Scale*. All these and others are listed or discussed in the bibliographies and references in the *Selected References* at the end of the chapter. In addition to these, two mimeographed bulletins will be helpful.¹ The first of

¹ David Segel. *Selected List of Tests and Ratings for Social Adaptation*. (Office of Education Circular, Government Printing Office: Washington, D. C., No. 52, 1932. 11 pp.)

Wilhelmina Bennett. *A Study of Several Well-Known Personality Tests*. (Psychological Corporation: New York, October, 1933)

these has a particularly valuable section on personality measures for preschool and elementary-school pupils.

In addition to adjustment and personality questionnaires, there have been numerous attempts to secure a quantitative measure of *interests*. Earlier mention has been made (Section II-5) of the value of determining interest patterns and the fact that these are more significant for student insight and more stable than are single interest choices. Following a pattern set by Freyd and Miner, most of the later measures use the technique of asking for 'Like,' 'Dislike,' or 'Indifferent' responses to many items. The most promising of these interest questionnaires are the Strong *Vocational Interest Blank* for upper years of the high school and college, the Garretson-Symonds *Interest Questionnaire for High-School Students*, the Brainard-Stewart *Specific Interest Inventory*, and the Thurstone *Vocational Interest Schedule*.

Of these, the Strong blank is the best standardized in terms of vocational interest patterns. Much research has been devoted to this blank during the last ten years — there is a book and twenty-eight research articles about it listed in the latest manual for the *Vocational Interest Blank*.¹ There are separate forms, with scoring scales for twenty-eight vocations for men and eighteen vocations for women. It is the most satisfactory blank for use at the college level and is also useful for high-school seniors.

The other interest measurement blanks can be described more briefly.

The Garretson-Symonds *Questionnaire*² measures interest patterns associated with academic, technical, and commercial high-school curricula. It is reasonably well standardized and is valuable for high-school educational counseling.

The Brainard-Stewart *Inventory*³ aims to determine interest patterns in terms of type of activity preferred, such as physical, mechanical, social, esthetic, study, observation, leadership, and creative imagination. It is not standardized for vocational patterns, although suggested groupings are given, nor does one know from the blank the overlapping of types of activity preferred. It is useful chiefly as a rough clue to activity preferences.

The Thurstone *Schedule*⁴ is based upon a factor analysis of voca-

¹ Stanford University Press: Stanford University, California.

² Bureau of Publications: Teachers College, Columbia University.

³ Published by the Psychological Corporation, New York City.

⁴ Published by the Psychological Corporation, New York City.

tional interest preference at the college level. Eight factors were found in the responses to degree of interest in eighty vocations. These factors are named in terms of the type of occupations most heavily represented in each factor: commercial, legal, athletic, academic, humanistic, biological, physical science, and art. One might get similar results by giving the Strong blank and observing the groupings of vocational interest-patterns. By the use of factor analysis, these have been grouped by Strong into scientific vocations, legalistic vocations, human-relations vocations, and business vocations.

A new *Vocational Interest Inventory*¹ has apparently been derived from the Strong blank. It is much easier to score than the Strong blank, but is much less well standardized.

d. *Tests of Vocational Aptitude and Skills.* Consideration of tests of vocational grouping is essential to a well-rounded discussion of tests, although many of the instruments of this kind are not valuable for school situations. Tests of vocational skill are seldom used in school, while those attempting to determine vocational aptitude, or capacity for learning skills in a given field, are few in number. These latter fall chiefly into two groups: tests for clerical aptitude and tests for mechanical aptitude. In these two fields some good tests are on the market. The *Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers*² and the *Minnesota Mechanical Assembly Test*³ are two of the more recent and more valid tests. The Johnson O'Connor *Finger Dexterity Test* and *Tweezer Dexterity Test*⁴ are widely used in determining aptitude for factory bench work and other occupations demanding finger or instrument manipulation. In the fields of art and music the Meier-Seashore *Art Judgment Test*,⁵ the McAdory *Art Judgment*,⁶ the Seashore *Measure of Musical Talent*,⁷ and the Drake *Musical Memory Test*⁸ are among the better known measures.

In some other fields vocational aptitude tests have been attempted

¹ Glen U. Clestin. *Vocational Interest Inventory* (McKnight and McKnight: Bloomington, Illinois, 1937)

² Published by the Psychological Corporation, New York City.

³ Distributed by Marietta Apparatus Company, Marietta, Ohio.

⁴ Distributed by the Human Engineering Laboratory, Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey.

⁵ The Bureau of Educational Research, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

⁶ The Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

⁷ Distributed by the Columbia Graphophone Company, New York City.

⁸ Public School Publishing Company: Bloomington, Illinois.

but without satisfactory results. Tests of medical, legal, and teaching aptitude often correlate highly with tests of general intelligence and therefore serve no distinctive purpose. Often, also, they are validated against professional-school grades instead of vocational achievement (see Section II, 2).

Vocational aptitude is best predicted by observing the relation among a number of factors, such as mental ability, social development, interest pattern, and length of training possible. For most occupations, the requirements are too complex to permit of a determination of aptitude by one test.

e. Guidance Tests and Inventories. The Kefauver-Hand *Guidance Tests and Inventories*¹ stand in a class by themselves. These recently published forms attempt to measure a student's knowledge of the various types of information and the processes involved in self-appraisal and guidance. The battery consists of six tests and two inventories as follows:

1. Educational Guidance Test
 2. Health Guidance Test
 3. Recreational Guidance Test
 4. Social-Civic Guidance Test
 5. Vocational Guidance Test
 6. Student-Judgment Guidance Test
1. Inventory of Student Plans
 2. Inventory of Student Self-Ratings

One basic assumption of a guidance program is that, if students are to choose wisely between alternatives, they must be informed regarding opportunities in society and in the school and must be shown methods of self-analysis. The first five of these tests measure the accuracy and extent of a student's knowledge of social and school conditions; the sixth test measures the student's knowledge of the limitations of various methods of self-analysis and the claims of charlatans. These tests have an interesting and honorable history. They are the outgrowth of six years of work by the authors under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. This grant was to support an evaluation study of guidance programs in secondary schools.²

¹ G. N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand. *Guidance Tests and Inventories*. Six tests, two inventories, manual, student profile chart, and class record. (World Book Company: Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1937)

² See p. 7 of the *Manual* of the tests or a forthcoming book by the two

No norms are given, because the authors are convinced that no standard of knowledge of different sorts of guidance information can be set up for a given student or school.

As broad surveys of student information, these tests should be useful in any secondary-school guidance program. They give pertinent information as to gaps or misconceptions in the student's background of information. They are the first battery of forms to give health, recreational and social-civic information as well as the more commonly considered educational and vocational information. Group guidance classes can be better taught if the students' needs for information are known.

The tests also provide an excellent 'Student Profile Chart' for the purpose of determining the high and the low spots in a student's background of information in the six aspects represented by the tests. Such a profile of information can well be considered in connection with a profile of measured interests and abilities, and these in turn studied in connection with his stated goals and plans.

The Inventories of Student Plans and Student Self-Ratings will be critically considered farther on.

2. Records

To secure information from records would seem to be so common an operation as to need little comment. As a matter of fact, the construction and use of records is a technique requiring considerable thought and skill. Chapter IV discusses the neglect of records in the preparation for the interview because they are poorly made or not easily available.

Jones lists six fundamental principles for the making of records.¹

1. Record facts about the student
2. Record *only* facts
3. Record only facts that will be used
4. Record facts in such a way that the maximum of data can be recorded in a minimum of space
5. Record facts in such a way that the significance of the information can be seen quickly
6. Keep together all the facts regarding the individual

authors, *An Appraisal of Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*. (To be published by the Macmillan Company.)

¹ A. J. Jones. *Principles of Guidance*. Pp. 218-221. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, revised ed., 1934)

Counselors can see that any record system embodying these six principles will be the result of much planning, foresight, and skill.

There is a variety of types of records that may be useful in a school situation, but the following should be considered a minimal list:

1. Record of previous school grades, student activities, teacher ratings, and comments
2. Record of present school grades
3. Record of any tests given
4. Record of background facts about pupils' date of birth; about birth-place, occupation, and education of parents, etc.
5. Attendance records and causes of absence
6. Record of extra-classroom activities
7. Record of interviews or of any type of counseling given
8. Health record, including growth data
9. Juvenile court, social agency, and employment record
10. Record of teacher ratings

Methods of recording information about students fall into three general classifications: (1) the pocket, or folder, type where a variety of record cards and sheets are kept together, (2) a central record card where all data are copied onto one card for each student, and (3) a combination of the two wherein a folder is used for memoranda, correspondence, etc., but both inside and outside flaps of the folder are spaced for the recording of essential information about a student. This latter form has become very popular in colleges as the result of the study of the American Council on Education on this subject¹ and should be much more used in elementary and secondary schools. The Council form-folder has been reproduced in many texts on guidance. It is intended for use in secondary schools as well as colleges. The writers have seen at least fifty very acceptable adaptations of it to local school or college situations.

Much, also, has been said, but too little done, about cumulative records. The American Council folder is cumulative, and it would seem that no arguments in favor of the principle are necessary. What is more significant is the necessity for a study of the information needed in a given school and the actual incorporation of spaces for this information upon a centrally available and cumulative record form.

In a recent study of guidance practices in 300 California high

¹ American Council on Education. *Measurement and Guidance of College Students*, Chapter I. (Williams and Wilkins: Baltimore, 1933)

schools,¹ 87 percent were found to use cumulative records, but only 57 percent recorded personality ratings by teachers, 23 percent vocational experience, and 19 percent facts about social development. Formal data, though more easily secured and recorded, are often the least valuable. It has already been suggested (Section II, 1), however, that much value can be derived from the most formal records and meager data by 'reading between the lines,' seeing relations, growth and development, strong and weak points.

The arrangement of the record form will go far toward suggesting relations and making the significance of material more apparent. One cleverly arranged for college use is described by Brintle² and one for secondary-school use by the Association of Secondary School Principals.³ Adaptation of these or of the American Council form is relatively simple. Jones (see *Selected References*) lists other forms. When the kinds of information discussed in Section II of this chapter are sought, new and more appropriate record forms will be needed. Construction of these must be considered a continuous process, keeping pace with changes in educational emphasis.

Three trends in the construction of records that stand out are: (1) the inclusion of more personal information about students, such as study habits, outstanding activity achievements, personality characteristics, home conditions, etc.; (2) the inclusion of information about a student secured in advance of his entrance to a given school unit; and (3) the inclusion of information (vocational, family, and social development) about students that has been collected after they leave high school or college. Certainly the problem of articulation from school unit to school unit, and from school life to life following school, can never be effected without adequate preschool and postschool information.⁴

¹ Ting Hsuan Chen and William Proctor "Guidance in secondary schools." *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 12 May, 1937, 268-273.

² S. L. Brintle. "Practical prediction and guidance chart." *Junior College Journal*, 3: March, 1933, 300-303.

³ *Guidance in Secondary Schools*. (Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 19, January, 1928 Pp. 72-78.)

⁴ Ralph W. Ogan. *The Ohio Program of High School-College Integration*. Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges, May, 1936; and in reprint form. (Supplementing this report is the record form used, "Uniform College Information Blank of Ohio Colleges," which may be secured from Herbert Toops, Secretary of the Ohio College Association, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.)

3. Rating Scales

The rating of others on behavior patterns and personality characteristics has been called by Shaffer¹ a mere refinement of the age-long practice of asking opinions concerning this man or that. As such, 'rating' will always be done. It is the function of psychologists to refine the method and make it less subject to error, while it is the duty of teachers, counselors, and employers to use the best refinements available. Despite the criticisms that have been made of ratings, they must still be considered an integral technique of diagnosis and guidance. The criticisms, in fact, have produced distinct improvements in method.

For an account of the many experiments with rating scales, the cautions to be observed in rating, the elements of a good scale, and the limitations of interpretation, the reader is referred to the excellent discussions by Symonds and by Bradshaw (see *Selected References*). Here, a few principles of a good scale and of intelligent rating will be presented and one illustration, the graphic rating scale, will be discussed.

To make good judgments of another's personality and character only a few refinements over ordinary observations are necessary, but these refinements are fundamental and difficult. The rating scale, or method, must call for judgments only on those behavior traits that are objectively observable; *i.e.*, that can be *seen* in behavior rather than inferred or subjectively estimated. The traits to be rated must be small in number, so that each will be a reasonably independent unit and not overlap another; from three to five traits is the accepted maximum for a good scale.²

As to reliability, the number of raters should be from three to eight for the best composite judgment. Furthermore, some traits can be rated more reliably than others; for example, 'scholarship,' 'leadership,' and 'intellectual quickness' can be rated with much better agreement between judges than can 'common sense,' 'impulsiveness,' or 'refinement.' That is, "traits which somehow leave their mark on things or influence external events are more reliably rated than qualities which are merely characteristics of the person being judged."³ Greater re-

¹ L. F. Shaffer. *Op. cit.*, p. 291.

² D. A. Robertson. "Personnel methods." *The Educational Record*, Supplement 9: No. 8, July, 1928, 45.

³ P. M. Symonds. *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*. P. 106. (D. Appleton-Century Company: New York, 1931)

liability is possible when the raters are given some training or have experience in rating.

Symonds sums up the matter of reliability admirably as follows:

1. Ratings should be made in a systematic way.
2. An extended period of observation should precede rating.
3. It should be kept in mind that rating is something in which the rater may improve through practice just as he grows more skillful in judging the quality of handwriting or an English composition through practice.
4. More attention should be paid to defining the qualities or traits to be rated, and more extensive definitions should be introduced.
5. Single ratings should not be used in the rating of human qualities. Sufficient reliability may be obtained only when a compromise is made of the independent judgment of from five to ten observers.
6. For experimental purposes all ratings should be discarded except those which are at the extreme ends of the rating scale and those on which the raters are sure of their judgment.
7. Traits for rating should be selected which experience shows yield better than average reliability.
8. So far as possible, bias should be eliminated from ratings. Individuals should not be expected to give fair ratings when judging themselves, friends, old acquaintances, or persons whom they much like or dislike, admire, or despise.¹

Of the various types of rating scales that have been employed — the man-to-man, "Guess Who?", self-ordinary-ideal, check-list, etc. — the graphic scale is generally considered to be most useful. In it the scale divisions run across the page. The best forms describe both the 'trait' to be rated and the steps of the scale itself in terms of behavior that is observable to others. Furthermore, certain experiments with it have shown the decided advantage of asking for 'behaviorgrams,' or brief statements of observations supporting a given rating judgment (see Bradshaw in *Selected References*). Giving these statements tends to make the raters more objective and to add valuable anecdotal comments to the scale. A revision of the American Council Scale is reproduced as an embodiment of the features just discussed. This scale and the experiments accompanying its construction have had a wide influence upon rating techniques.

The Haggerty-Olson-Wickman scale ² is another good example of the graphic form.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 114.

² Haggerty-Olson-Wickman. *Behavior Rating Schedule*. (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1930. 11 pp.)

PERSONALITY REPORT¹

Name of Student... ..

A. How are you and others affected by his appearance and manner?	Avoided by others	Tolerated by others	Liked by others	Well liked by others	Sought by others	No opportunity to observe
--	-------------------	---------------------	-----------------	----------------------	------------------	---------------------------

Please record here instances that support your judgment.

(There follow here similar spaces and descriptions for rating

- B. Does he need constant prodding or does he go ahead with his work without being told?
 - C. Does he get others to do what he wishes?
 - D. How does he control his emotions?
- concluding with E as follows:)

E. Has he a program with definite purposes in terms of which he distributes his time and energy?	Aimless trifter	Aims just to "get by"	Has vaguely formed objectives	Directs energies effectively with fairly definite program	Engrossed in realizing well-formulated objectives
--	-----------------	-----------------------	-------------------------------	---	---

Please record here instances that support your judgment.

¹ Reproduced, by permission of the American Council on Education, from *Measurement and Guidance of College Students*. P. 75. (Williams and Wilkins: Baltimore, 1933)

4. Inventories of Information

These might be described as blanks for the collection of supplementary, personal, and background information about the student, his ambition and interests, his family and home. They are informal and non-standardized.

Such an inventory can be filled out prior to an interview or can be made part of an admissions blank.¹ It may be used in interviewing, in interpreting test information, and in providing a generally better rounded picture of the student. An inventory of this sort should be made locally, so that the information needed in a given situation or considered valuable by a given teacher or counselor can be requested of persons competent to supply the information.

The recently published Kefauver-Hand *Inventory of Student Plans* and *Inventory of Student Self-Rating*² are carefully made inventories. Two cautions should be observed in their use. The first form is valuable both for the stimulus it gives the student to make his plans and for the supplementary information it gives the counselor. The student should understand that he is to fill out this record of plans carefully and thoughtfully and that the chief value is to himself. It should be kept in mind that the statements in the *Inventory of Student Self-Rating* indicate what abilities students think they possess, not necessarily those they have. By comparing a student's self-rating with measures of his abilities, it is possible to ascertain the extent of error in his appraisal. The inventory is a valuable form to use in connection with a profile of measured capacities, since the student's misconceptions regarding himself can then be classified and corrected.

The Achilles *Aids to the Interview*³ is an example of a more extensive form of inventory.

¹ The admissions blanks of such universities as Michigan, Ohio State, Iowa, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Northwestern contain elaborate provision for inventories of personal and background information. The Northwestern and Minnesota blanks also contain the five items of the American Council on Education rating blank for rating by the principal or faculty. The demand for such a wealth of information may prove its own undoing; among so many details the significant items may be overlooked.

² G. N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand, *Inventory of Student Plans and Inventory of Student Self-Rating*. (World Book Company: Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1937)

³ Paul S. Achilles. *Aids to the Interview*. (Psychological Corporation: New York, 1933)

It should be stressed that the value of this technique of appraisal lies in its supplementary use, and that the counselor has no assurance that statements of purpose, achievements, or interests are accurate. Williamson, for example, found little or no relationship between items of personal history and college scholarship.¹ In many of his responses in the inventory the student may lack insight or may want to make a good impression. On the other hand, valuable clues as to parents' attitudes, home conditions, and student ambitions may be picked up by such an instrument. An inventory form can also be used to secure information from parents on home behavior of the child, genetic factors in development, parental attitudes, etc. The Adolescent Study of the University of Minnesota General College is using inventory forms to secure a student's reactions and those of his parents to the same items of information and attitude, so that any differences between the responses of the student and those of his parents can be examined as possible indications of parental pressure, or misunderstandings, or friction in the home.

A modification of this technique is the use of daily schedule reports by the student that Strang describes in some detail² and recommends. The schedule is most often used to give students insight into their distribution of time between daily routine, study, and recreational activities. The unit used is the week, with activities recorded by the student in half-hourly or hourly periods or by type of activity. From the counselor's point of view, the information supplied is valuable for its picture of normal activity and for its use as an introduction to an interview.

5. Observation

The technique of observation is a common function of all teaching and counseling. One 'observes' student behavior in the classroom, in the interview, on the playground. In the sense in which the term is used in this section, however, observation is a refined technique for the diagnosis of student behavior in the same sense in which intelligence ratings are refinements of the judgment of others. It has been more widely used with preschool and elementary-school children than with adolescents, but it could be adapted to student appraisal at all levels.

¹ E. G. Williamson. "The significance for educational guidance of personal histories." *School Review*, 44: January, 1936, 41-49.

² Ruth Strang. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. Chapter 18. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1935)

Olson¹ and Thomas² have made significant contributions to an understanding of careful observation. Arising out of such studies are several principles to be followed in using the technique.

First, *the rôle that observation is to play* must be determined. Observation may be a valuable supplement to the interpretation of test scores or the development of a learning process. For example, careful and systematic observations of a student while his test score is explained, while he is questioned about his personal history or future ambitions, or while he is presented with a new idea or a new skill in the classroom may give clues to character, emotional factors, and interests. In a more fundamental fashion, observation may be used as a *direct* technique for diagnosing such factors as social adjustment or study habits.

Second, there are demanded certain *personal qualities in the observer*; good eyesight, freedom from fatigue (both of which will vitally affect the accuracy of the primary observations), ability to attend closely, to estimate, and to make relatively fine distinctions without the aid of instruments.

Third, *clear, unprejudiced perception* is essential. The danger of generalizing upon too few instances or of having poorly defined or overlapping terms used in interpretation, the presence of bias or prejudice upon the part of the observer — for example, teachers who brand children as 'lazy,' who see the educational process from the point of view of one subject-field or level of interest, who are shocked by the slightest schoolroom disorder on the one hand or are entirely oblivious to any amount of schoolroom disintegration on the other hand, and who attempt to observe only in moments of crisis or excitement — all are deterrents to good perception.

Fourth, *many short observations* are superior to longer ones at less frequent intervals. Olson,³ in particular, has pointed out that a good

¹ W. C. Olson. *Measurement of Nervous Habits in Normal Children*. Institute of Child Welfare Monograph Series, No. 3. (University of Minnesota Press: Minneapolis, 1929. 97 pp.)

² D. S. Thomas and others. *Some New Techniques for Studying Social Behavior*. Child Development Monographs No. 1. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1929)

³ Willard C. Olson. "A study of classroom behavior." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 22: September, 1931, 449-454.

Willard C. Olson and Elizabeth M. Cunningham. "Time-sampling techniques." *Child Development*, 5: 1934, 41-58.

Florence Goodenough. "Measuring behavior traits by means of repeated short samples." *Journal of Juvenile Research*, 12: 1928, 230-235.

unit of measurement is the occurrence or non-occurrence of an item of behavior (whispers, facial tics, social approaches of children to each other on the playground, etc.) within a short limit of time (five minutes, ten minutes, one minute). The spacing of many short periods of observation will give reliable and significant results.

Fifth, *directed observation* is generally more effective than general, or 'finding' observation. The latter is important as an exploratory device, but the most significant results will be obtained when the observation is directed to a specifically defined unit of behavior. To observe a child's 'classroom behavior' will produce more ambiguous and less reliable results than to observe "number and type of questions asked and responses given" during a series of five-minute observations.

Details of the physical conditions of observation and of the recording of observations cannot well be discussed here but reference is made to Olson, Thomas, Symonds, and Strang (the latter two in *Selected References* at the end of the chapter). Strang suggests pertinent problems at the adolescent level that might best be attacked through observation. They are problems of study habits; of phases of classroom behavior, such as types of questions asked; of social behavior, such as meeting strangers, getting along with fellow-students, selfishness or unselfishness in a group; of reactions in the interview to such things as the interpretation of tests, school subjects, successful students, recreation, or home and family. Observations will continue to be made as a matter of conscious or unconscious diagnosis. Teachers are counselors should train themselves to become as accurate, systematic, and clear as possible in a conscious use of the technique.

6. Autobiographies

The importance of using autobiographical material is self-evident, but unfortunately not enough is known about careful use of such material. Assigning composition themes on "The Story of My Life" is a hackneyed use of a good idea. Such themes make interesting reading, but they do not provide source material for very accurate diagnosis. Requests for a discussion of some segment or phase of a student's life may be better. Superior to this, however, is a careful preparation of the students for recognizing significant elements in human behavior, establishment of confidence in the teacher or counselor that what is written will remain confidential, and an indication that, if they wish, the problems revealed will be discussed with them personally.

A college class in child psychology wrote detailed and revealing ac-

counts of their lives as a phase of the course but the names on the papers were removed from the papers and code numbers assigned. The identification of papers was possible only by the instructor. The Adolescent Study of the Progressive Education Association has secured significant autobiographies but only for the comparatively few case studies they are making and only after *rapport* had been established between the worker and child.

Autobiographical materials may be very valuable for student *self-appraisal*. The end of all diagnosis is student insight into the course of his own development. If a critical review of 'how he got this way,' of the factors in his development up to the present, is to be helpful, it will be chiefly helpful to the student. There is not much danger of morbidity, of too great an emphasis upon introspection, if the student is prepared for the writing of his personal history. The approach provides a crude and subjective, but in specific instances very effective, self-analysis.

The daily schedule provides, as it were, a segment of autobiography. Diaries have also been used, but unless they are made for stated purposes they are both dangerous to collect and difficult to interpret. The interpretation of subjects chosen, style used, and illustrations employed in English written work is a neglected means of diagnosis. The same is true for many types of creative work done in the school: art work, musical composition, even shop projects. Though they are ready-at-hand they are neglected because counselors do not know how to use them as diagnostic measures. Statements of reasons for a given decision, of steps leading up to a decision, or childhood experiences, when written for a specific purpose (on such topics in English or other courses as "Changes in Education from one Generation to Another," "Emotional Experiences in Childhood," and "Economic Advantages of an Education"), will supply valuable autobiographical material.

Such material is useful in supplying an understanding of the present degree of school achievement, of social adjustment, and of emotional control, but too much should not be 'read into it' from the teacher's own aspirations, fears, and emotional sensitivities. The material should rarely be taken at face value without corroborative evidence.

7. Interviews

This technique is listed here for completeness of outline; it is discussed in Sections II and III of Chapter IV of this Yearbook.

8. Case Histories

The inclusion of the case history as a technique of diagnosis may demand some explanation. In the sense in which the compilation of a case history brings together for interpretation many related aspects of a given student's personality, it becomes a technique for diagnosis and synthesis. The reader is referred to Strang (see *Selected References*) for a detailed and significant account of the case history. Reproduced below is her list of twelve fields of inquiry for providing information. The techniques used to *collect* the information are those discussed in the present chapter.

Sources of Information Regarding an Individual (Strang)

1. Information concerning the present problem
2. Family background (personalities involved). This includes health, personal characteristics, nationality, citizenship status and religion, educational history, economic and social status, occupations, social activities, atmosphere of the parents' home, marital relationship, relationship of the parents to their children, method of discipline, variations in the child's behavior, special accident or event, factors in the family routine, brothers and sisters.
3. Home and neighborhood environment. This includes economic conditions, recreational interests and resources, child's attitude toward his home.
4. Early development. This includes conditions of birth, special health conditions, psychological development.
5. The intelligence of the individual.
6. The academic achievement of the individual. This includes standardized tests, attitudes of students, study habits.
7. The health of the individual.
8. Sex development of the individual.
9. Social behavior and interests of the individual. This includes leisure activities, companions and friends, emotional accompaniment of behavior.
10. Religious and emotional adjustment.
11. Vocational interests and experiences.
12. Facilities available for treatment.

Strang's list of types of information needed for a case study is more complete than can often be utilized in a case study of a student; nevertheless, it is suggestive. The counselor might take the nine kinds of information about students discussed in Section II as a basis for a case

study. Or he might take the seven techniques for gathering information just discussed and use the information gained by these methods for the outline of knowledge of the student. The manner in which such information is interpreted and related by teacher-counselors is the subject of discussion later in this chapter.

IV. CRITICAL EVALUATION OF CUSTOMARY TECHNIQUES OF DIAGNOSIS AND SELF-APPRAISAL¹

1. The Concept, Probable-Success-or-Failure, and Its Limitations

Measurements are often used in guidance to determine the probable success or failure of a given student in various courses, fields of study, curricula, colleges, or vocations. Because this function of measurement is widely and uncritically accepted, some of its limitations need to be pointed out.

First, the likelihood that a student will get a high mark in a course is no guarantee that he needs the course; nor is the probability that he will get a low mark sufficient evidence of itself that he does not need it. In extreme cases, to be sure, there is small likelihood that a given student will profit from certain courses, but within these extremes, the probability of success or failure has small value for guidance. Take, for example, the matter of prediction of success in college. If success is considered wholly in terms of securing a college degree, accurate prediction is relatively simple. As a matter of fact, if the writers of this chapter were permitted to choose the college, they could guarantee that any high-school graduate could emerge from it four years later with a baccalaureate degree. From the standpoint of sound guidance such prediction is inconsequential. It is far more important for the counselor to assist the student in determining whether or not, in terms of his abilities, interests, and needs, he should pursue a pattern of college courses that leads to a particular degree. In the long run, the use of tests solely for the purpose of predicting success or failure tends to exaggerate strengths and weaknesses and promote the habit of following the line of least resistance.

Second, the predictive value of available test data does not warrant more than a very crude sort of discrimination among students. In practice usually a fourth of the students do well, a fourth do poorly, and the middle half do mediocre work in almost any field. If a guid-

¹ Paul B. Diedrich, of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University, assisted in the preparation of Section IV.

ance worker concludes from a student's record that he is finally and forever good in French and art and poor in mathematics and science, the interpretation goes beyond the data unless these differences in his achievement are extreme. Moreover, this sort of piecemeal and spotlight interpretation, assuming that a high score means 'good' in one area and a low score means 'poor' in another, precludes the more fruitful interpretation derived from a study of the total pattern in the record, of the relation of one score to another, in such a manner as to arrive ultimately at a sound appraisal of the important, and of the inconsequential, elements in the pupil's behavior. No guidance worker has the right to jump at conclusions concerning the child's future behavior on the basis of one or even two test scores. Whenever he does so, he is not far from charlatanry. To this matter of pattern interpretations we shall return later in this chapter. Suffice it here to note that the use of tests alone in predicting probable success or failure does not offer much help in selecting courses, because such a use fails to consider the important elements of needs, purpose, or motivation.

Third, the most that can be accomplished by the use of measurements for predictive purposes is a crude semi-annual sorting of pupils — getting square pegs into square holes and round pegs into round holes, whereas the use of measurements by the counselor should go beyond this sorting process. Observations of proficiencies and deficiencies along with guidance must be continuous.

Fourth, the use of tests for predictive purposes places undue emphasis upon getting passing marks in courses when growth should be the important goal of education. Since the whole concept of placing stress upon passing a course is inimical to the philosophy of this Yearbook, it would be most unwise to build a measurement-and-guidance program for the purpose of predicting whether a pupil is to receive a passing mark.

2. The Nature of an Adequate Program of Evaluation

On the other hand, a case can be made for the prediction of success if emphasis is placed upon the probable usefulness of a course to a student, upon the likelihood that he will profit from it, and if it is assumed that teachers' marks indicate the extent to which a student has profited. If this is held to be the purpose of a measurement program, then that program can be used directly and efficiently and can, in its turn, contribute many other values that are in line with a progressive philosophy of education. In other words, measurements may be used to indicate

the extent to which a pupil has developed in terms of his needs. Instead then, of stressing the prediction of success, the discussion, like that of this chapter as a whole, has led us to emphasize the discovery and treatment of needs.

'Needs,' as here used, mean 'life demands,' or the present and probably future demands of living in a society that includes such a wide variety of things as to care for one's health; to get along with other people; to marry, have children, and provide a wholesome home life for them; to participate constructively in community life; to derive satisfactions as well as economic rewards from a vocation; to know how, when, where, and for what to spend money; to have a personal, but not a selfish, philosophy that provides the basis for forming judgments and that serves as a criterion of values.

a. Pupils' Interests and Purposes. A fundamental approach to the task of guidance may be made through this broad category of life demands. Four aspects or classes of these demands may be recognized in the work of the school. The first relates to the pupil's interests, purposes, or goals. To what extent is he developing these purposes, or interests, while he is in school? How do they differ from his interests of a year ago? These are important questions, because needs arise from purposes and if the school is to assist in developing the child so that he can better meet his needs, then it must be concerned with his purposes or goals, as discussed in Chapter I. For example, if a student *wants* to become an aviator, then he *needs* whatever training is necessary to make him the best possible aviator. If he *wants* to become a worthy citizen in a community, then he *needs* whatever training is necessary to make him the most efficient citizen that it is possible for him to be. If he *wants* to learn whatever he can about plants, then he *needs* whatever the science of botany can contribute to that development. Thus the study of interests and purposes is an essential avenue to the discovery and treatment of needs. The schools must assist in the formation of these goals where they are lacking, eliminate or redirect some, and minister to others that already exist. With measurement, or evaluation, rests the problem of determining what interests exist, how they change, what factors contribute to the changes, and what growth is taking place in them. This affords a conception of measurement much broader than the usual shotgun application of tests.

b. Fundamental Urges and Drives. The second attribute to be appraised, the second 'area of evaluation,' concerns the fundamental urges and drives that are common to large numbers of children, such as

the need for food, for affection, for achievement, or the feeling of doing something worth while. Unfortunately for the educator, psychologists have not yet been able to ferret out the common drives, nor do they agree in their fundamental conceptions of their nature. But the counselor cannot wait until all of them are discovered and classified; he must utilize those that are obvious and seek to discover and understand the major urges in individual children. Unless the evaluation program contributes to this end it is falling short of its function.

c. *'Remedial' Needs.* The third set of needs to be appraised arises from what might be called, for the lack of a better term, 'corrective' or 'remedial' needs, those that grow out of certain pathological aspects of pupil behavior. Symptoms that society regards as undesirable must be detected; for example, ill health, unhappiness, unpopularity, withdrawal, fear, shame, worry, failure to attain reasonable purposes, failure in school, inability to get things done, retardation in any aspect of normal growth, lack of consideration for others, selfishness, egotism, fantasy, too much rationalization, dishonesty, evasion, malingering, boredom, laziness, and slovenliness. When the unwholesome symptoms are apparent, an effort must be made to discover probable causes; for example, glandular malfunctions, poor vision or hearing, faulty diet or posture, family difficulties, sex problems, conflict and confusion in thinking, in attitudes, or in purposes, poor work habits and study skills, inexperience, misdirected experience or training, inability to read, or lack of social graces and accomplishments.

It is often hard to distinguish between symptoms and causes; almost any cause may be a symptom of some deeper problem and almost any symptom may be a cause of another difficulty. However, with the assistance of an adequate evaluation program, it is usually possible to discover a number of factors that are at the bottom of a particular pupil's difficulties. When these factors have been discovered, an hypothesis can be formed concerning the type of treatment the pupil needs to ameliorate or eliminate his deficiencies. The difficulties must always, however, be considered in relation to broader or major purposes; the correction of them should not be an end in itself. For example, if a given pupil's needs or purposes make it desirable that he study science, and if in doing so, he fails to grow in knowledge, or in skills, the measurement program might lead the teacher-counselor to suspect that the symptom is the result of lack of interest. Suppose the teacher sought to cultivate interests, but without noticeable improvement. A broader application of measurements might reveal that the pupil is deficient in

some basic reading skill. If correction of this deficiency produces a prompt and lasting improvement, then it is clear that the cause of his poor work in science has been found. If the improvement fails to appear, the evaluation program needs to explore other possible causes. Although such studies of the pathological aspects of pupil behavior are important in detecting some of the most immediate and pressing needs, they are not sufficient in themselves to explore the full range of a pupil's needs. Most of his needs are not pathological, but arise out of major purposes or life demands.

d. Social Needs. A fourth set of needs, the 'social needs,' is on a somewhat different basis from the preceding three. Because it is discussed more fully elsewhere in this Yearbook, only brief mention will be made of it here. By 'social needs' is meant those needs that are provided for by society as a unit; for example, transportation, communication, health service, facilities for recreation and education, money, government, and others of a similar nature. The task for guidance and measurement is to determine the relation of the individual to the production and consumption of the facilities required to meet these needs. Up to now, guidance has been concerned chiefly with the problem of assisting the individual in the selection of a vocation or a field of service to society in which he can coöperate in providing for one or more of these needs. But guidance carried on with an enlarged vision must be concerned with the total contribution an individual can make to the needs of society, not alone with the contribution he can make through his chosen vocation. With this emphasis a vocation becomes a part of a greater coöperative effort to provide the things that all individuals — that society — need and want, rather than merely an opportunity to make money, possibly at the expense of someone else. Here measurement has not even begun to make a contribution, probably because evaluation always lags behind the application of a new philosophy, and the schools have hardly begun to accept — to say nothing of apply — a truly social point of view.

Within all these areas of evaluation there are important common factors utilized in meeting a wide variety of life demands, such as methods of thinking, knowledge, attitudes, habits, skills, the ability to apply knowledge in the solution of problems, the formation of judgments, and others. Hence the job of discovering and treating individual needs really begins with measuring progress toward, or discovering deficiencies in, these important common factors. This, then, is the essence and function of an adequate measurement program — one not generally

recognized by the teacher-counselor — and the customary techniques of diagnosis and self-appraisal must be evaluated in the light of it.

3. A General Critical Appraisal of the Techniques

As part of the description of the techniques for securing information regarding students, certain precautions in connection with their use were pointed out. A more general critical appraisal remains.

a. Cumulative Records. During recent years considerable attention has been given to the advantages of cumulative records, so that now, fortunately, more and more school systems are attempting to maintain rather complete records of pupils' abilities, achievements, ratings on personality traits, health reports, and anecdotal accounts of performance. All these operate to present a more comprehensive view of the total individual personality.

The theory of these cumulative records is that they will follow the boy or girl throughout the training period. Thus, when the student moves from the high school to the college, his complete record is forwarded to the college authorities. It is assumed that the college is thereby better equipped to counsel with the student and to arrange a course of study for him that is suited to his previous training, needs, interests, abilities, and peculiar personality traits. The theory is sound. The records have the very great advantage of stressing individual growth and development. They minimize courses, units, semi-annual promotions, and similar administrative devices that tend to distract the educator from giving attention to actual growth of pupils in relation to objectives.

But there are cautions that need to be observed. The fact that they are regarded as presenting a complete picture is in itself a handicap, for it is practically impossible for any record to be complete. At best, it can be only fragmentary and must be interpreted as such. Frequently, the teacher-counselor, upon seeing a cumulative record, thinks that he has a full and accurate account of the child's abilities and interests, and he regards the collection of further information as non-essential. At that point he fails, for if he is alert to his responsibilities he must constantly be on the search for additional information; he will accept no record as completely adequate; he will, in the words of Dr. Wood, *learn* the child as well as *teach* him — and *learning* the child involves more than a study of records.

Cumulative records, like other test records, have another disadvantage. With the tendency of the human mind to classify, there is always

the danger that because of reports of specific previous behavior that may be included in the record, the teacher-counselor is at first sight prone to consider the child as a problem case. The situation becomes analogous to that of a prisoner who, after serving his term in a penitentiary, finds it difficult to reinstate himself as a respected citizen in his community, or of a woman who has had an illegitimate child and is therefore regarded as an outcast, or of a patient who has been confined because of mental ill health and is forever after considered 'crazy.' Altogether too frequently the teacher-counselor 'settles' a problem by classifying it and unfortunately the cumulative record assists him in this process although *it need not* if he is fully aware of the inadequacies of the record and if he maintains the proper attitude toward it as a piece of supplementary and fragmentary evidence that may possibly assist in helping the student find himself.

b. *Tests and Scales.* On the advantages and inadequacies of tests and scales, much has been written. Concerning their function, two points especially need to be stressed. First, they are merely *efficient techniques* utilizing a sample of observations. The most adequate measure would consist of complete observations of all possible behavior that relates to a particular trait. But such observations are impossible, nor would they be efficient if feasible. Therefore, the method of making a limited observation is used. If the counselor wishes to measure the student's total general vocabulary, he asks him to define 100 or 200 words. If the sample is not adequate, the measure is a poor one; if it is adequate, then it can be used with some confidence. At any rate, it would obviously be impossible for the counselor to take every word in the English language and find out how many of them the student knows. Similarly, any test, measurement, or observation of a trait must of necessity be a sample. That must be kept in mind.

Second, each test must be evaluated in terms of the purpose for which it is constructed. A yardstick is not cast into the fire because it cannot be used to measure weight, even though there is a relation between height and weight. A measuring cup is not discarded because it will not hold a gallon of water, although if used often enough a gallon of water can be measured with it. Likewise, a test of arithmetic vocabulary can still be used, even though it does not measure the ability to solve arithmetic problems. In all probability *the chief errors that have been made in the use of tests result from the fact that too much is expected of them.* Too often, to be sure, the compiler of a test has been responsible for misinterpretations by placing a trait-name on it when

he himself is not sure of what it measures. Numerous so-called 'personality' tests fall in this category. Other difficulties arise because the meaning of trait-names is not clear. What, for example, do 'intelligence,' 'honesty,' 'neuroticism,' 'adjustment' mean? Their meanings depend upon their user. As a result, tests supposedly measuring these traits are used and misused for different purposes by different individuals — although they are by no means equally valid for all purposes.

A further difficulty appears because it is not possible with present techniques to measure all traits. The teacher-counselor is inclined, as a result, to give undue emphasis to the traits that can be measured and to ignore those that are more difficult to observe. He will measure a student's knowledge of the history of art but fail to observe the extent to which the student can appreciate the work of artists.

Unless test results are to be used, the tests themselves should not be given. Antagonism on the part of both teachers and pupils has been aroused in the past because time was given to tests the results of which were never referred to.

Another flagrant error has appeared particularly in achievement-test batteries supposed to be used for diagnosis. In the test manual only the reliability of the total battery may be reported; yet the teacher is urged to use the scores for each section as it is plotted on a profile chart. Closer study of these tests sometimes reveals that the various sections of scores are not all sufficiently reliable for group measurement. On the whole, there are too many poorly constructed tests — tests that are inadequate as measuring instruments.

On some personality scales, such as attitude measurements, a sophisticated student can determine the direction of his score. Such tests apparently need to be made more subtle in form.

In the interpretation of scores there has been perhaps an over-emphasis on objectivity. Because a score was 30 or 50 units on a quantitative scale, it was often regarded as significant when in reality it may have had no such precise value. Sometimes a finality has been attributed to what should have been regarded only as the beginning of the diagnostic procedure.

Norms, too, while quite essential in comparing a given pupil with large groups, have led teachers astray. Sometimes norms have been considered as standards to be achieved by all pupils, and not infrequently special drills have been provided to teach the tests before the tester arrived. Such limited vision on the part of teachers cannot be

tolerated in a sound educational system, and where it exists, the tests are not to be blamed.

As a basis for interpreting the usual standardized measurements, Eurich and Carroll¹ brought together statements of basic principles that underlie their construction. Because use of tests implies the acceptance of these principles, they are reproduced briefly at this point:

1. Distinct psychological traits or patterns of traits exist.
2. Psychological traits exist in terms of amount.
3. Psychological traits can be measured quantitatively.
4. Individuals differ in the amount of a particular trait they possess.
5. In the case of many traits, the average amount possessed increases with age.
6. Since individuals of the same age differ in the amount of a psychological trait they possess, the trait is not wholly a function of age.
7. Psychological traits are interrelated in varying degrees.
8. A particular psychological trait or pattern of traits may be measured independently of other traits.
9. A sample of items can be used to represent all possible responses of a given type.
10. The performance of an individual represents the ability, aptitude, or accomplishment that is being measured.
11. The performance of an individual in a given test situation is proportional to the ability, aptitude, or accomplishment that is being measured.
12. The conditions under which tests are given can be made approximately uniform and can be controlled.
13. The results of psychological measurements are amenable to statistical treatment.

These principles naturally impose limitations. Only through other types of observations can the limitations be overcome. Inventories of information, systematic and direct observations, autobiographical and anecdotal material, interviews and case histories (as described in the previous section), all should be used to supplement test records. The unreliabilities of these supplementary methods should be fully recognized, however, and accounted for. They are more casual and informal but nevertheless valuable.

In summary, then, it can be said that an adequate evaluation program must

¹ A. C. Eurich and H. A. Carroll. *Educational Psychology*. Chapter IV. (D. C. Heath and Company. Boston, 1935.) Quoted by permission of the publishers.

1. use measurements and observations in relation to student needs;
2. develop and use tests and measurements in terms of specific purposes;
3. interpret tests and other observations only in terms of what they measure, never regarding a score as a final appraisal, but always looking for supplementary evidence to be used along with test data in determining the growth of pupils;
4. consider each test or measurement score or observation as representing only *one small part* — in most cases an infinitesimal part — of the individual's total aptitudes, accomplishments, or personality traits. In other words, evaluation of an individual must be a continuous process, never ending during his lifetime.

V. INTERPRETATION AND CLINICAL USE OF DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES

1. Introduction

Two broad phases in the appraisal of student needs and characteristics may be termed *analysis* and *synthesis*. The first phase consists of a breaking down, or *analysis*, of the student's need for assistance and development, the selection of the diagnostic techniques or measurements that are most pertinent to his problem, and the use of these techniques, whether they be tests, observation, ratings by others, a study of records, or a combination of all these. The kinds of information to be secured, the techniques for securing these kinds of information, and the appropriateness and limitations of the techniques have all been discussed in preceding pages.

The second phase, *synthesis*, consists of a discriminating consideration of the information secured, whether through the counselor or through other persons or agencies, an assembling of this information in such a way that relations and meanings become apparent, a determining of the alternatives open to the student, and the discussing of them with the student in his own language. *The final decision must rest with the student.* Shifting the environmental factors, or helping the student carry out his decision, and following-up, both to assure the student's welfare and to test the effectiveness of the alternative selected, should be considered an *application* of the synthetic phase of the appraisal. This process of application is so fundamental a part of the synthesis of information and the consequent decision made by the student that it should never be considered separately. A most ineffective, but too common, procedure is to go through an elaborate diagnosis but to consider the matter settled when the student determines upon a likely solution. Not to assist the student in carrying out his decision, not to see

that environmental shifts in school or community are made, and not to check later upon how the solution worked are analogous to the architect's withdrawing after the blueprints are made or to the doctor's losing interest once a prescription is written. It is with various aspects of the synthesis of information that this section is concerned.

Williamson and Darley have a more elaborate set of steps in the process of appraisal, drawing freely from analogies with medical practice. Their six steps are: (1) *clinical analysis*, or the selection of diagnostic techniques, (2) *clinical synthesis*, or the assembling of facts about a student from every personnel agency, (3) *clinical diagnosis*, or the determination of the nature of the student's problem, (4) *prognosis*, or the statement of alternative solutions or courses open to the student (5) *treatment*, or the putting into operation of the recommendations accepted by the student, (6) *followup*, or the evaluation of results in terms of student welfare and further need.¹ There is no fundamental difference between this analysis of the process and that stated earlier in the section.

The factors entering into a good synthesis of information and its consequent application are six in number:

1. *The counselor* or counselor-teacher, his training in diagnosis, experience with student problems, and knowledge of conditions in society and the school
2. *The techniques used*, especially the variety and availability of tests and other means of securing objective data
3. *The records*, their completeness and availability, the extent to which they make relationships between data apparent
4. *The interview*, as a means of interpreting information and alternative courses of action to the student
5. *Coördination*, particularly that between various workers in the school or college, and various school and community agencies having contact with the student
6. *Research*, the evaluation of techniques and procedures as well as the inclusion of critical research as a necessary function of the entire program of guidance and instruction

It is obvious that a book might be written about these six factors in the interpretation and application of diagnostic information. In fact, many of them are discussed in some detail in other sections of this Yearbook.

¹ E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley. *Student Personnel Work*. Pp. 168-179. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1937)

2. The Counselor-Teacher

The training of the counselor-teacher should emphasize a thorough grounding in psychology, the use of tests and measurements, the recognition of faulty emotional or social adjustments in students, and a mastery of the laws of learning. The professional training of a good counselor-teacher is discussed in Chapter X. The counselor must also have had enough general experience and contact with students not to be naïve in dealing with their problems, to be able to recognize important factors in commonly found problems, and to have insight into underlying causes. This is not assuming that subjective judgment will *replace* objective diagnosis, but that it is needed to supplement it.

The personality problems of students and the teacher's relation to them is discussed in Chapter VII.

A third type of knowledge is information about the school and societal conditions that give rise to student problems and that condition development. To this should be added comprehensive understanding of vocational and social conditions to be faced by students after leaving school. Chapter I, Section IV, provides an excellent presentation of the social knowledge needed by counselors, while Section II of this Chapter discusses the different kinds of information to be secured about students.

The focal point in good counseling is, of course, the counselor, his knowledge of diagnosis, students, school and social conditions, his degree of interest in students. He must be a careful technician, a broad student of affairs, a good case worker, and a good teacher, but the best of counselors cannot work without time for their work, adequate materials and coöperation, and administrative support.

3. The Techniques Used

These have been discussed in some detail in Sections III and IV of this chapter. Without good tools the counselor is thrown back upon snap judgment and guesswork.

4. The Records

Records have already been discussed in Sections III, 2 and IV, 2 of this chapter. Their place in the synthesis of diagnostic information needs further emphasis here. Discrepancies between aptitude score and grades, between stated interests and tested interests, between social development and measures or observation of the home, come to light more quickly when the record form provides for a grouping of measures of

scholastic promise and achievement, of adjustment measures and observations, of interests and purposes.

A much abbreviated case taken from Williamson and Darley¹ illustrates the value of reports showing the relations of factors.

William Greene came to the counselor as a college sophomore, having been registered as a premedical student for seven quarters. His grades were mostly C's and D's with many F's, although he had a percentile score of 87 in the college aptitude test. From the parents it was found that in 1921 William had been given the Stanford-Binet test in Terman's study of gifted children and had been rated as having an I.Q. of 150.

William said he did not have much interest in medicine, but his parents had urged it upon him. His stated vocational interests were varied — newspaper work, medicine, engineering, aviation, 'movies,' 'speculative business,' and truck-driving, while his Strong Vocational Interest test scores were spread out and rather neutral, with no score higher than a B. All the B ratings but one were in occupations dealing with people or business.

The decided discrepancy between ability and achievement, and the presence of only weak, unrelated interests, led the counselor to suspect some emotional problem as the source of his apparent apathy. Although the student characterized himself as subject to nervousness, headaches, speech difficulties, and frequent periods of depression, the health-service report showed no significant physical defects. On all the information blanks relating to personality, instability was noted, while a personality test corroborated the interviewer's belief that several maladjustments might be present, particularly a feeling of inferiority.

Upon checking with the parents, the counselor found that William had always been very conscious of his height and of his large hands and feet, that he had never been told of his Stanford-Binet score, that he was very dependent on an aggressive mother, and had been criticized for his failures. Without following the case further it is apparent that the boy was not only miscast vocationally, but was also the victim of an overwhelming sense of inferiority.

In the case just described the grouping of related information in the record sheets gave the counselor clues as to possible difficulties that were subsequently verified.

In addition to this grouping of related information, the record form should provide for some type of profile that will show the student's development from year to year in academic achievement, personality, interests, recreational activities, and so forth.

¹ E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley. *Op. cit.*, pp. 230-234.

5. The Interview

This topic is treated extensively in Chapter IV. Its importance in the synthesis of information and the presentation of suggestions and alternatives to the student is obvious. Great care must be used to interpret diagnostic information in terms of student understanding and in a manner that will lead the student to self-appraisal and insight.

Percentile scores, for example, are superior to raw scores in presenting test information if their significance is made fully clear to the student. Thus the student should know the population with which he is being compared, *i.e.*, the nature of the norms on which the percentile is based and the meaning of the fiftieth percentile, since some persons are surprised and even shocked to learn that one-half of a group are 'below the average' of the group!¹

Personality test scores or ratings should rarely be given directly to the student, since misinterpretation and misapprehension are likely to result. Intelligence test scores should rarely be given directly to students, but should be interpreted in terms of probability of achievement in a given situation (as set forth in Section II of this chapter) and only then if matters of maturity, emotional stability, and background are taken into account.

From these few illustrations can be seen the importance of the interview in interpretation and synthesis; it may be used for securing information; it must be used for giving information and for guiding the student.

6. Coöperation

Coöperation between all educational workers who are in contact with a given student is necessary both in securing diagnostic information about him and in helping to develop his course of action. The unified nature of the educational experience in which the student engages is nowhere more evident than in the application of whatever synthesis of information has been effected. As a result of the student's self-appraisal, made possible through such agencies as the testing program, counselor, and teacher, he may decide to change his goal, shift to a new course of study, develop himself more sociably, secure further job-experience, or remedy a personality maladjustment. The degree to which he makes this decision independently or is skillfully directed to

¹ An excellent chapter on "Interpreting Test Performance" will be found in W. V. Bingham. *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing*. Pp. 245-265. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1937)

it by his counselor depends upon such factors as the need for speedy action and his maturity, but the application of his decision demands the unqualified coöperation of all who are concerned with his educational experience.

Such a point of view assumes that the counselor will share his diagnosis of the student's needs with others concerned. This importance of the relation of the counselor to others in the school is treated again in Chapter IV. Here it may be noted that coöperation can be made more effective through a coördinating record system, through the educational clinic, through a core curriculum, and through many specific points of contact made by the counselor. If the individualization of the education of the student is made the responsibility of the counselor alone or if he is considered responsible for a service supplementary to instruction, then coördination is less possible and the student's development is hampered. What Williamson and Darley call "treatment" is possible only through concerted effort, possibly directed, it is true, by the teacher-counselor, or guidance director (see Chapter IX).

7. Research

Thus far we have placed little emphasis on the necessity for research in a guidance program, particularly for research in the use of diagnostic techniques. The counselor who accepts at face value any measuring instrument, who adopts certain techniques and clings to them without evaluation, who fails to read the research studies on personality development, validation of tests, social factors involved in child and adolescence development, or the laws of learning is as culpable and negligent as would be the physician who uses patent medicines or accepts each new drug or operational technique as he reads of it in his journals.

A university health service with which the writer is acquainted has been testing the new drug prontosil, used in the treatment of streptococcic infections, by determining the proportion of patients benefiting from the treatment and checking for ill effects and possible residual effects that would necessitate caution in the use of the drug. A counselor or teacher who fails to use similar precaution in his work with students does not produce as readily observable damage as does a careless medical practitioner, but his responsibility is as great. The very fact that the results of wrong educational diagnosis are not quickly apparent makes for greater necessity of careful investigation and evaluation in all phases of the learning and counseling processes.

The point of view of one working in the field of research is an important one for the teacher-counselor to cultivate. He must be intensely interested in *tested facts* and in the constant appraisal of what he is doing. Appraisal as a continuous process, discussed in the next section, must be directed both to the techniques with which the counselor works and to the educational end-product — student behavior, whether in school, out of school, or after school.

The Kefauver-Hand *Guidance Tests and Inventories*¹ are another promising lead to an evaluation of the student information phases of a guidance program. Chapter IX of Williamson and Darley² should also be cited for its careful evaluation of the results of guidance with 196 students in the Minnesota program and for summaries of certain earlier studies in evaluation. Research and evaluation are pivotal concepts for any program of student diagnosis, counseling, and guidance.

VI. APPRAISAL, A CONTINUOUS PROCESS

At a number of points in this chapter appraisal, or evaluation, has been referred to as a continuous process. Because this concept is quite contrary to that usually held in the application of tests, it demands further emphasis and clarification.

Ordinarily, tests are administered at certain time-intervals, and, since they provide the chief means of appraisal, evaluation proceeds intermittently. Even in the most publicized guidance programs, ability and achievement tests may be given at the beginning of the year, additional subject-matter tests at the middle and end of each semester, and comprehensive examinations at the end of the year. The marks thus derived are recorded and frequently form the only means of evaluation available to the teacher-counselor. On the other hand, education and guidance, themselves, are treated as continuous processes. The child's behavior is never regarded as static, but as a continuous process. If instruction and counsel contribute to this process, changes may be taking place constantly, but through irregular and inadequate measurement programs, some of the most important changes may go unobserved.

The work of Ralph Tyler, of Ohio State University, and his associates in following over a three-year period the permanence of changes induced by the study of zoölogy well illustrates the need for making continuous observations. On tests of knowledge their results were typi-

¹ G. N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand. *Guidance Tests and Inventories*. (World Book Co.: Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1937)

² E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley. *Op cit.*, pp. 234-270.

cal of other investigations in showing a marked loss. On tests of the ability to apply principles to new situations and on exercises involving the interpretation of new experiments, students continued to gain throughout the three-year period after they had taken the course. Under the typical examination program where only one final test is used at the end of the course and where there is no subsequent evaluation, the specific losses and the gains made during the semester while the students were taking the course and for the years following remain unobserved. In other words, the teacher-counselor may be ignorant of the permanent values of instruction despite his use of several tests. Without knowledge of those permanent values, it is almost impossible for him to counsel intelligently.

Society would not tolerate for a moment a designer of bridges who was concerned only with the strength of the bridge immediately after it was constructed. He must know how long that strength will be maintained, what the deterioration of the materials will be, and be able to predict approximately the period of time that the bridge will be useful under prescribed conditions of care. When the carelessness of human engineering is compared with major concerns of mechanical engineering, the educator may well pause for serious consideration. For the most part, he does not have the slightest notion about the permanent contribution of any particular course of study or unit of work. What, for example, has the child retained from his high-school course in civics by the time he is a senior in college or at the time he takes up his duties as a full-fledged citizen in his community? Educators need to develop a major concern over these permanent values if they are to have a better knowledge of the contribution they are making to society.

If appraisal is to be on a more continuous basis, the teacher-counselor must constantly be alert for evidences of changes in behavior. To be sure, tests cannot be given every day to measure the effects of instruction and counseling. But tests must be conceived as only one aspect of a program of evaluation that, in broader terms, should be a complex and a longer process. Tests must be supplemented with direct and systematically recorded observations of behavior, with journal records, with autobiographical notes, with anecdotal accounts, all of which should be as definitely a part of the child's record as test scores and teachers' marks.

Furthermore, a *continuous student self-appraisal* is as important a part of the evaluation program as teacher-counselor appraisal. This aspect has been well worked out on a practical basis at the Michigan

Central State Teachers College. In their book, *A College Curriculum Based on Functional Needs of Students*, Heaton and Koopman write as follows:

The student is the central figure in the appraisal activity. He has definite needs, both individual and common, which are more or less clearly recognized. In some cases the student provides ratings on his fellow-students for appraisal purposes. In the case of students who are difficult to socialize, individual students or groups of students are asked to help the individual solve emotional and coöperational difficulties. His positive suggestions or his very confusions indicate ways in which evaluation may help. He is the center of the activity whether or not he suggests the need, the instrument, and the activity. He, at any rate, 'always participates in the interpretation and application of the data.'¹

When the counselor acquires as a working principle the significant concept of evaluation as a continuous process, there is little danger that he will give undue importance to one bit of evidence concerning the child's abilities that may be derived from a single test.

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CHAPTER III

APPRAISING CERTAIN ASPECTS OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

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I. INTRODUCTION

Throughout this Yearbook every effort has been made to emphasize the fact that guidance should be an integral part of every aspect of education. How can guidance become an integral part of the teacher's day-by-day procedures? What follows represents an attempt to show some of the ways by which a teacher may become a more effective person in the guidance of his students.

In choosing experiences for the classroom most teachers consciously or unconsciously accept a series of assumptions somewhat similar to the following:

1. They assume that their students have certain needs that must be satisfied. In general, these needs are of the kind that cannot be met merely by handing over to the student some material object, such as food when the student is hungry, or clothes when the student is ill-clothed. The needs are generally of a psychological or a social nature.

2. Teachers next assume that their function as teachers is not merely to supply materials that, in turn, will meet a particular need of their students; they assume, rather, that their function is to help in the development of boys and girls in such a way that they will be able to meet their own needs. These teachers assume further that the way to do this is to promote in their boys and girls growth in certain characteristics of personality. A typical list of personality characteristics¹ often assumed to be helpful to boys and girls in meeting their own needs includes some of the following:

¹ This does not assume that these characteristics of personality are unitary traits, or that they exist as 'faculties' that, when developed in one field, transfer with equal success to other fields. Teachers who have defined their objectives in terms of student behaviors representative of these characteristics of personality will undoubtedly want to give their students opportunities to develop facility in meeting successfully situations in all of the important phases of life.

- (1) Improved habits and abilities with relation to reflective thinking
- (2) Wider and richer interests
- (3) An increasing consistency in important attitudes
- (4) Increasing facilities to adjust socially
- (5) A developing creativeness
- (6) Improved study skills and work habits
- (7) An increasing stock of vital information
- (8) A wider and better appreciation of literature, the arts, and music
- (9) A developing sensitivity to significant social problems
- (10) A functional philosophy of life

After assuming certain needs of students that seem quite reasonable, and after postulating certain characteristics of personality that, when developed, might reasonably be expected to help students to satisfy those needs, teachers then assume that certain educational experiences will be helpful in bringing about those changes in personality. It is at this point that teachers can be helped greatly to bring the guidance and the instructional activities into a close relationship. Some experience has shown that teachers are helped considerably when some such program as the following is carried out.

1. In Chapter II it was pointed out how necessary it is that the objectives of teaching be clearly defined in terms of what boys and girls actually would be expected to *do* in the daily affairs of the school. In other words, wherever teachers formulate an objective, they should immediately ask themselves this question: "What will my students actually do to show they have made progress in achieving this objective?" This particular way of making clear what is meant by the objective helps more than anything else to make the educational program clear, and teachers who have done this recognize in the daily behavior of their students points where guidance is needed. Later on in this section detailed reference will be made to certain objectives and the ways in which guidance can be carried on.

2. After the teachers have made clear in terms of pupil behavior what they mean by an objective, it is usually helpful to describe a classroom situation in which boys and girls will have a chance to show the presence or absence of the desired characteristic. For example, if teachers have set up an objective called 'the development of reflective thinking,' and if they have defined one aspect of it to include the characteristic: "In drawing inferences from what they read, students will qualify their statements when they are not wholly supported by the data," it then becomes necessary for the teachers to give an illus-

tration of a situation that, when presented to students, will give them a chance to reveal whether or not they are cautious in drawing inferences. One such illustration, of course, is not enough. If this particular objective is important, the teacher follows this step by collecting a large number of such situations and these become a part of the learning and teaching experience.

3. The third way the teacher can be helped greatly in making guidance an integral part of teaching is in the search for some method of recording the achievement of the students. Where he has defined his objective in terms of pupil behavior, where he has made a collection of situations in which students will have the chance to show what they can do and cannot do, the teacher will have a chance to observe daily and to note in his memory what the various students are doing. This, however, is not always enough, and it is at this point that formal instruments of evaluation may be of great help. Emphasis should be given to the fact, however, that evaluation is not something that comes at the end of teaching. If the classroom experiences are chosen in the way outlined, the teacher will have continuous opportunity to note how his students meet the challenging situations presented to them. The formal tests are to be given neither at the end nor at any specified time, but should be an integral part of the teaching. They are given for the sole purposes of diagnosing student difficulties, measuring growth, and affording teachers an opportunity to do guidance work. The exercises included in any one particular test are either similar to the ones students meet in their daily school experiences or of the kind that serve as a highly reliable index of the achievement of students in the everyday classroom situations.

4. The fourth and last step in this program of helping teachers to make guidance an integral part of their teaching consists in formulating economical ways for interpreting the available records. Granting that all the previous steps have been carried forward and that test data and other records are in the hands of the teacher, what help can be given in the interpretation of these data, and what suggestions can be made for individual guidance of students and in the teaching of groups of students? The greatest help will probably be the development of summaries that will draw from the tests and records the kind of information teachers themselves find useful in their classroom activities. Many of the available commercial tests and current teacher-made tests, and most of the available records, contain much valuable information that is sadly neglected. Later in this discussion, samples

of such sheets will be presented to illustrate possible ways of summarizing student achievement.

II. GENERAL NATURE OF THE MATERIALS AVAILABLE FOR APPRAISAL

The remainder of this chapter will deal with some of the recently developed instruments available for measuring progress toward teachers' objectives, the available means of summarizing and interpreting individual results, and ways of using these data for guidance.

In the past twenty years many measuring instruments have been developed that are potential aids to teachers in counseling and in guiding the progress of their students, but until recently, these instruments were designed mainly to measure stock of information. Today, however, teachers have at their command instruments that are helpful in the diagnosis of thinking processes, of consistency of belief and attitudes toward major social problems, of the kind and amount of appreciation of subjects of study, of accomplishment in study skills and work habits, of social sensitivity, of creativeness, of interests and leisure-time pursuits, of social adjustments, and of the student's philosophy of life.

This chapter is not the place to describe all these instruments. Instead we shall select certain of them in order to give concrete illustrations of students' responses to the various kinds of instruments, and to show how the achievement of any individual student might be summarized in a description that could be utilized as a basis for further guidance.

Discussion will be focussed on outcomes that in the past have been characterized as among the 'intangibles,' as, for example, growth in some important skills related to thinking, changes in attitudes toward important social issues, and changes in the appreciation of literature.

Current educational literature is rich in its description of new techniques, better diagnostic devices, designed to help teachers with the guidance of their students.¹

¹ Readers interested in the more detailed diagnosis of achievement in subject-matter fields, in leisure-time activities, in creativeness, and in principles and techniques of educational diagnosis and treatment will find the best single source of information "Educational Diagnosis," *Thirty-Fourth Yearbook* of this Society, 1935.

Everyone concerned with the guidance of boys and girls in our educational institutions will be glad to know that a machine has just been developed that will score twenty papers a minute. Since it makes use of answer sheets separate from the text of the test, the same tests can be used over and over again.

III. TECHNIQUES DESIGNED TO MEASURE SKILL IN THINKING

We begin by illustrating instruments now available for guiding students in their thinking.

1. The Interpretation of Data

Our first illustration will deal with that aspect of thinking most commonly referred to as 'the interpretation of data.'¹ A sample exercise that illustrates the abilities involved is shown on page 94.

To guide the development of thinking skills, it is necessary to define what is meant by each particular thinking skill. In the present instance we must make clear, in terms of student behavior, the phrase 'interpretation of data.' A number of teachers, meeting in regional conferences, have agreed that the following are important aspects of the skills involved in interpreting prose data, graphical data, tabular data, and various kinds of charts and pictures. Any 'interpreting' situations, whether 'teaching' or 'testing,' should give students opportunities to reveal whether or not they possess these skills.

Some aspects of the skills helpful in the interpretation of data are as follows:

1. The interpretation can be made from the data without qualification.
2. The interpretation is definitely contradicted by the data.
3. The interpretation involves a calculation that can be made directly from the data and can therefore be supported or contradicted, depending upon the accuracy of the calculation.
4. The interpretation goes beyond the data, but is in agreement with the trend, and might be qualified as 'probably true.'
5. The interpretation goes beyond the data, is contrary to the trend revealed, and might be qualified as 'probably false.'
6. The interpretation refers to a point that lies within the data but not specifically described, and might be qualified as 'probably true' or 'probably false,' depending upon whether it does or does not agree with the revealed trend.
7. The interpretation goes beyond the data in assuming that things, conditions, processes, and so forth, that are alike in some ways are alike in others, and must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.'
8. The interpretation assumes the presence of a plan or purpose not speci-

¹ This test and the others described in this chapter were developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, co-operatively with teachers from the thirty high schools participating in the Eight-Year Study.

fied in the data, and must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.'

9. The interpretation assigns a 'cause' to the relationships revealed by the data, and when not supported by other evidence, must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.'

10. The interpretation involves an ambiguous use or a misuse of a term in the data, and must be qualified by relating it to the specific 'new' use.

11. The interpretation assumes that what is true of a single case, or of a

SAMPLE OF TEST ON INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Directions: In each of the following exercises some test, experiment, or situation is described. Below the description you will find several statements that are suggested as possible interpretations of the data. Assume that the facts of the description are accurate. Carefully consider each of the statements and indicate in the columns to the right whether you believe:

- (1) The evidence is sufficient to make the statement true.
- (2) The evidence is sufficient to make the statement false.
- (3) The evidence suggests that the statement is probably true.
- (4) The evidence suggests that the statement is probably false.
- (5) The evidence is insufficient to make a decision concerning the statement.

1. Death Rate Per 100,000 Population in the U. S. Registration Area (From U. S. Statistical Abstract, 1932)

	1900	1930		1900	1930
Diarrhea	140	18	Tuberculosis	195	68
Diphtheria	400	4	Influenza and Pneumonia	179	61
Whooping Cough	12	33	Typhoid and Paratyphoid	31	2
Measles	13	3	Malaria	6	0
Scarlet Fever	10	2			

a. The number of illnesses from these contagious diseases has been, in general, greatly reduced from 1900 to 1930

b. The decrease in typhoid cases within the last thirty years is due to a purer water supply

(And so on to)

k. The American people cooperate well with their local health departments . .

l. The public schools have been a great help in preventing illness and death . .

1	2	3	4	5

few cases, is true of all cases, and must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.'

12. The interpretation involves a personal judgment — sometimes biased, at other times unbiased — that is external to the data, and must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence' unless supplementary data are introduced.

13. The interpretation represents a universal generalization, concerning which the data presented serve only as a single illustration, and must, therefore, be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.'

14. The interpretation assumes that the data are valid and reliable and in the absence of any information relevant to those points must be qualified as being based upon 'insufficient evidence.' Where incomplete but partial information is available, the interpretation must be qualified as 'probably true' or 'probably false,' depending upon the circumstances.

Let us assume that a class of students has taken the test, a sample of which has been shown, and that we now have the students' papers before us. Of what value are the results to the teacher so far as guidance is concerned? Much study given to students' test papers has resulted in the development of the Summary Sheet reproduced herewith. This summary reveals the extent to which students recognize and correctly label the true statements, the false statements, the probably true statements, the probably false statements, and the statements based on insufficient data. Moreover, the table in the top half of the summary shows the kind of errors that students made in judging each of the interpretations presented in the test exercise. Inspection of this chart indicates to the teacher where each student has had the greatest success and where his failures are concentrated.

In the case reproduced, Harold Brown seems to have had little difficulty in recognizing true statements as true (8 of 13) and false statements as false (5 of 7); he has, however, shown surprising difficulty in recognizing the other types of interpretations.

Nearly all his responses are concentrated in the columns headed 'true,' 'insufficient data,' and 'false.' This may be thought to indicate that Harold tends to label interpretations black or white; he is not inclined to make the finer discriminations involving degrees of truth or falsity.

If we now turn our attention to the bottom half of the summary sheet, we find that Harold is well below the median¹ of his class with respect to his

¹ A word about the use of the median here. With respect to these particular abilities, no objective test data, collected earlier in Harold's career, were available to compare his present with his past achievement and thus get a desirable measure of his growth. In the present chapter no special value is attached to the median or average as a basis of comparison.

ability to recognize the relative validity of different kinds of interpretations. We already know that he was fairly successful with the true and false interpretations and that his major difficulty lies in recognizing statements that are probably true, probably false, or based on insufficient data. There is very little tendency on Harold's part to be cautious in his interpretations, and so far as these data show, he makes few wide errors in judgment. By this is meant that Harold does not frequently call true statements false, or false statements true. On the other hand, he shows an emphatic tendency to go beyond the facts; *e.g.*, to label as true statements that are only probably true or as false those that are only probably false. Moreover, he tends, when confronted with statements that really are based on insufficient data, to call them true or false or probably so. All these are definite signs of going beyond the available facts.

By referring to Number 8 in the "Analysis of Achievement" the teacher can see at once the tendency of his students to accept as true or probably true, statements that do not merit this characterization. In some instances this will give the teacher a clue to the gullibility of particular students, for to assign a greater degree of truth to the printed page than is warranted by the facts is one way of being gullible. In item Number 9, a similar trend will be noted with respect to the student's tendency to regard as false or probably false statements that are not certainly false. A disposition 'not to believe,'

SUMMARY SHEET ON INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Student's Name *Harold Brown* Grade *10*

School Date

Note: In taking this test the student was directed to study the data carefully and then to mark the given interpretations as true, probably true, probably false, or false. Where the student thought the data were insufficient to decide among these possibilities, he was instructed to classify the interpretation as such. The following table represents the distribution of this pupil's responses:

Number of statements in this test which SHOULD have been marked as:		This student marked these statements as:					
		True	Prob. True	Insuff. Data	Prob. False	False	Omitted
13	True	a. 8	b. 1	c. 3	d. 1	e. 0	—
15	Probably True	f. 8	g. 3	h. 2	i. 0	j. 2	—
16	Insufficient Data	k. 9	l. 3	m. 4	n. 0	o. 0	—
11	Probably False	p. 0	q. 0	r. 3	s. 3	t. 5	—
7	False	u. 0	v. 0	w. 1	x. 1	y. 5	—

(Summary Sheet, Continued)

ANALYSIS OF ACHIEVEMENT

Significant Aspects of Behavior Relating to the Interpretation of Data	Relevant Categories	Tallies in Categories	Class Median	Class Range
1. Recognizes <i>true</i> statements as <i>true</i> , <i>false</i> as <i>false</i> , etc.	a, g, m, s, y	23	32	18-41
2. Tendency to be over-cautious.	b, h, r, x	7	7	4-11
3. Tendency to be extremely over-cautious.	c, w	4	4	0-9
4. Tendency to go <i>somewhat beyond</i> the facts.	f, l, n, t	16	12	8-21
5. Tendency to go <i>rather far beyond</i> the facts.	k, o	9	5	2-10
6. Tendency to confuse the 'probably true' and the 'probably false.'	i, q	0	2	0-5
7. Tendency to judge statements as being in the direction of 'true' or 'false' when the data support an <i>opposite</i> direction. <i>Wide</i> errors in judgment.	d, e, j, p, u, v	3	4	0-8
8. Tendency to judge statements as having a greater certainty of truth than the data justify.	f, k, l	20	16	9-21
9. Tendency to judge statements as having a greater certainty of being false than the data justify.	n, o, t	5	8	3-13
10. Tendency to be more <i>certain</i> than the data justify.	All of 8 + 9	25	24	11-32

Comments on student's development in this field:

not to accept the printed page, may be involved in this behavior. Harold Brown is much more likely to believe as true or probably true many statements that are based on insufficient data, and he is much less likely to characterize as false or probably false interpretations that are based upon insufficient evidence. In fact, we notice that, whereas the group as a whole had a tendency to mark twice as many statements in the direction of true or probably true as they did in the direction of false or probably false, Harold has shown himself to be even more gullible than this, for his ratio in the same categories is almost four to one.

The last item on the summary sheet reveals at once that Harold very frequently goes beyond the data, whether in the direction of ascribing greater truth or greater falsity than should be ascribed.

It may be unnecessary to delve further into the diagnosis of Harold's difficulties with respect to the interpretation of data. The average teacher, given the foregoing information, would immediately plan a series of exercises or experiences¹ that would give Harold further opportunities to make finer discriminations in interpreting data; would bring to his attention the difficulties he is having; and would explain why it is impossible to say of many of these statements that they are either true or false.

So far the guidance function of the teacher has been interpreted to refer to individuals, but these test results offer teachers an excellent opportunity for a group approach. This particular summary sheet on which Harold Brown's responses are tabulated contains also the median scores of his class. A few minutes' study reveals that the group as a whole needs help in recognizing interpretations that involve finer discriminations with respect to the probability of truth or falsity.² It shows also a definite tendency on the part of the class to go beyond the data, and reveals, too, a disposition on the part of the group to err in the direction of postulating greater certainty of truth to interpretations than the data would warrant. The teacher can, therefore, give both specific and general guidance. Perhaps a meeting of teachers who have these particular students in charge would be helpful, for discussion might bring out such difficulties as over-stressing the true-false, yes-or-no type of response.

2. The Application of Logical Principles: 'Nature of Proof' Test

We shall proceed now to another type of test of thinking that may provide teachers with further opportunities for guidance. This test

¹ This does *not* mean that Harold should be asked to work on a series of test exercises. The ability to be developed is 'the interpretation of data,' not the ability to take tests. Hence the teacher will provide, not test exercises for practice materials, but real experiences, related to the school program, in which Harold will have opportunities to make interpretations. Moreover, whether Harold *should* concentrate on improving this skill or ability depends upon a consideration of his whole pattern of achievement and not merely upon the results of a single test.

² This interpretation is based upon the fact that this group of students made errors of this sort and upon the assumption that they can develop further in their ability to interpret data. The assumption has been validated by experimental data from other groups of Grade X students and perhaps some tentative 'norm' of what can be expected of students of this age and grade level should be supplied to teachers.

deals with the ability of students to apply principles of logic to situations new to them, but found within the daily experiences of boys and girls of secondary-school age. The illustrative selections from this test are labeled "The Nature of Proof." The exercises are representative of two principles of logic held important by a number of teachers in several high schools.

SAMPLE OF A TEST BEARING ON THE NATURE OF PROOF

(See Principle A of Summary Blank)

In the course of a letter to a newspaper the president of a power and light company said, "The Federal Government is building electric power lines which will compete with private power utilities in the Tennessee Valley. It is unfair for the Federal Government to compete with private power utilities."

Assuming these statements to be true, check any of the following statements that in your opinion are consistent with them:

- _____ 1. It is unfair for the Federal Government to build competing power lines in the Tennessee Valley.
- _____ 2. It is quite fair for the Federal Government to build competing power lines in the Tennessee Valley.
- _____ 3. Further information is needed before any logical conclusion can be drawn.

Check below any statements that you would use to explain or support your conclusion.

- _____ a. The government will be doing a useful public service and should go right ahead.
- _____ b. The power companies have a lot of money invested and the government will ruin their business.
- _____ c. The word "utilities" needs to be more carefully defined.
- _____ d. If a person accepts the original statements, then to be logical he should accept the conclusion which follows from them even if it is not necessarily true.
- _____ e. We need to know whether the private power companies charge too much.
- _____ f. The soundness of an indirect argument depends upon whether all the possibilities have been considered.
- _____ g. The government does not have to pay taxes to itself, so it is unfair for it to compete with private business.
- _____ h. The people are benefited because competition helps keep the cost of power low.
- _____ i. A changed definition will produce a changed conclusion, although the argument from each definition is logical.

SAMPLE OF TEST BEARING ON THE NATURE OF PROOF

(See Principle D of Summary Blank)

3. The following statement is a quotation from a daily newspaper:

"With knuckles bleeding from vehement desk pounding, Senator Glass, Democrat, today heaped a scalding attack upon Senator Nye, Republican, for calling Woodrow Wilson a liar."

Earlier, Nye spent an hour reviewing the evidence on which, as Chairman of the Munitions Committee, he based the charge that Wilson "falsified" in testifying that he did not learn the Allies had secret treaties for dividing the territorial spoils of war until after the conflict had ended.

Glass retorted: "If it were permissible in the Senate to say that any man who would asperse the integrity and veracity of Woodrow Wilson is a coward, if it were permissible to say that his charge is not only malicious but positively mendacious; that I would be glad to say here and elsewhere to any man whether he be a United States Senator or not.

"Such a charge is not only destitute of decency, but such a shocking exhibition as never has happened in the thirty-five years I have served in the Congress of the United States."

The following statements refer to this quotation. Check those with which you agree:

- _____ 1. Senator Glass proved Senator Nye's charges were false.
- _____ 2. Senator Glass did not prove Senator Nye's charges were false.
- _____ 3. Further information is needed before we can decide whether the argument presented by Senator Glass is logical.

Check below any statements that you would use to explain or support your conclusion.

- _____ a. Senator Glass made a very effective speech in disproving the charge.
- _____ b. It is a cowardly and vile thing to call a dead man a liar.
- _____ c. Senator Glass calls Senator Nye a coward (and a few other names) but disproves nothing.
- _____ d. We need to know whether the statements of Senator Glass are true or not.
- _____ e. No definite conclusion can be drawn from an argument which of itself reaches no definite conclusion.
- _____ f. Because of his many years in Congress, Senator Glass is a better authority than Senator Nye.
- _____ g. Senator Glass did not state any facts which disprove Senator Nye's.
- _____ h. Many words like 'integrity,' 'malicious,' and 'mendacious' need to be defined before we can decide whether Senator Glass disproved the charge.

Assume that a class of students has taken the complete tests of which these two exercises are representative and that the responses of each individual have been tabulated on a special summary sheet for the test, like that reproduced here. Inspection of the summary of Harold Brown's responses shows whether or not he selected the most reasonable answer in each case, and whether or not he substantiated his answer with acceptable reasons.

Take first his record with respect to the so-called 'if-then' principle. This Principle A involves the ability to recognize that, if certain premises are accepted as true, then the conclusion that inevitably follows from those premises must also be regarded as true. In Harold's case we note that in not one of the three problems of this kind included in the test did he recognize the most reasonable answer. He had a disposition to accept as true the premises that were given, but he was disinclined to accept the conclusions consequent to them. The teacher might conclude that Harold had no clear understanding of the logical principle involved, and this conclusion would be even further substantiated by the additional evidence that Harold checked only one of the possible acceptable reasons for the more reasonable conclusions.

Take, second, Harold's record with respect to Principle B, the importance of precise definition. In the three opportunities to reveal his grasp of this principle, Harold achieved almost a perfect score. He not only indicated in every case what seemed to be the most reasonable answer, but also justified his decisions with the correct reasons, and adduced only one incorrect reason in the three problems. The teacher may conclude that Harold's grasp of this particular skill is good.

Principle C in the summary sheet gives the teacher evidence that in recognizing the invalidity of the indirect argument where all of the possibilities have not been considered Harold has significant weaknesses. He has only one of the three conclusions correct, and while he has a few of the correct reasons checked, he has also many incorrect ones checked. The teacher may conclude that Harold does not understand clearly and comprehensively that all possibilities must be considered before a problem can be solved by the process of elimination.

The summary for Principle D reveals the extent to which Harold recognizes that ridiculing an opponent, or his arguments, questioning his integrity or purpose, is not an adequate refutation of the facts involved. Harold recognized all the more reasonable conclusions and seemed to recognize that this type of argument was unsound, but his achievement must be discounted because in every case he has brought to bear upon his conclusions some reasons that do not apply, and in only a few instances has he recognized the appropriateness of the correct reason. The teacher may conclude, therefore, that, while Harold might not be 'taken in' by this type of argument, he is unable to tell why the specious arguments are specious.

In the total picture of Harold as revealed by this test, opportunities are to

SUMMARY OF TEST BEARING ON THE NATURE OF PROOF

Student's Name *Harold Brown* Grade *10*

School Date

Principle A. "If you accept certain premises, then you must accept the conclusion which follows from those premises."

Problems		1	4	7
Score for {	Correct Conclusions	0	0	0
	Correct Reasons	0	2	0
	Incorrect Reasons	-4	-4	-4

Principle B. "Crucial words or phrases must be precisely defined, and a changed definition will produce a changed conclusion although the argument from each definition is logical."

Problems		2	8	10
Score for {	Correct Conclusions	2	2	2
	Correct Reasons	4	4	4
	Incorrect Reasons	0	0	-2

Principle C. "The validity of an *indirect* argument depends upon whether all of the possibilities have been considered."

Problems		5	9	12
Score for {	Correct Conclusions	2	0	0
	Correct Reasons	2	2	0
	Incorrect Reasons	-4	-2	-4

Principle D. "A logical argument cannot be disproved by ridiculing the arguer, or his arguments, or by attacking his motives, etc."

Problems		3	6	11
Score for {	Correct Conclusions	2	2	2
	Correct Reasons	0	2	2
	Incorrect Reasons	-4	-6	-4

	<i>Principle A</i>	<i>Principle B</i>	<i>Principle C</i>	<i>Principle D</i>	<i>Total</i>
Total	-10	16	-4	-4	-2
Median Score	-8	12	-2	8	11

be found for guidance, which might take the form of presenting many opportunities to analyze similar arguments involving principles with which he has difficulty.

As in the case of the first test examined, on the interpretation of data, the class summary at the bottom of the sheet will give teachers opportunities for an approach to the entire group. With this particular class evidently the importance of definitions in argument is fairly well understood and practiced, and the invalidity of arguments the purpose of which is to ridicule or defame opponents or to question the integrity and sincerity of people who hold opposing viewpoints seems also well recognized. The group as a whole did least well on problems involving the 'if-then' principle, and many of the students made errors when they attempted to solve problems involving the indirect method. Many, perhaps most, teachers could bring to their students additional exercises involving these principles of logic and could point out the dangers or subtleties involved in those types of argumentation.

3. Tests of Ability to Apply Principles to Problems in Science

Still another instrument is available with respect to the application of principles and facts to situations in subjects new to students. Two such sample exercises relate to the field of science, two to the social studies. The abilities involved are associated with thinking and have been defined by teachers in terms of student behavior as follows: students who have developed the ability to apply facts and principles in the solution of problem situations new to them will be able to make reasonable predictions of what will happen in situations where those principles are involved; moreover, they will be able to give adequate and relevant reasons why they believe their predictions are indeed reasonable.

The list of reasons to be found in the two exercises pertaining to science has not been made without careful thought as to the ways in which students frequently err in justifying their conclusions. A study of the list of reasons will reveal to the reader that some are true; some appeal to false authority; some appeal to analogies that are not close enough to be strictly applicable; some are based upon ridicule; some are mere repetitions of the prediction and hence not reasons at all; some are popular misconceptions of truth; and others could be classified in other ways.

Assume that a test has been administered that included from 12 to 15 exercises of this sort, each affording an opportunity to make a prediction that seems reasonable, and an opportunity to substantiate the predictions by the application of certain facts and principles that have been learned in the school.

Let us first examine the case of Harold Brown again with respect to his ability to apply facts and principles relating to science. The accompanying summary sheet gives to the teacher some clue as to his difficulty, and points to procedures that the teacher might very well follow in his guidance program.

Part I of the summary shows that Harold made 18 of 18 possible predictions but only six correct ones. Apparently he did considerable guessing. Comparing his achievement with that of the class, he was at the top of the range in number of predictions, but almost at the bottom in number correct.¹ This is further substantiation of the hypothesis that he was guessing. We note, also, that whereas Harold had one out of three predictions correct, the class as a whole had half of their predictions correct.

Part II shows that, of the 33 correct reasons in the entire examination, Harold checked 35, but only 10 correctly. This surprisingly small proportion may confirm the teacher's conviction that Harold is unable to supply facts and principles to support his predictions. The reader will notice that Harold was at the top of the range in number of reasons checked, but again at the bottom in number checked correctly.

We know now that Harold checked many wrong reasons. Part II-B of the summary will supply some indication of the kinds of errors he made. The table is itself easily read. Without going into details that the reader can examine for himself, we may note that 22 of Harold's 25 errors related to the checking of false statements of one kind or another — technically false, false analogies, popular misconceptions of truth, and appeals to false authorities. Harold's teacher could point out the inapplicability of the latter three types of reasons in justification of predictions, but would probably have to make a more careful study of Harold's tendency to check 'technically false statements' in support of his predictions. The teacher's knowledge of Harold's previous experiences in science might suggest that Harold is woefully weak in knowledge of the facts and principles of science; the teacher might use an information test to check this suggestion. Again, teachers might very well have each student write out in essay form or discuss orally the facts and principles he would use in justifying predictions he selected when presented with a problem and a few alternative predictions.

The method of scoring each paper is shown in Part III of the summary sheet. The total score of Harold Brown, the class median, the class range, Harold's rank in his class, and the number of students are all shown in Part IV. We see that Harold had a total score of -5, almost the lowest in a class of thirty-three students. (*Text continued on page 106, following the test.*)

¹ See Footnotes 5, 6, and 7, which apply to all of the tests considered in this chapter.

APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES TO PROBLEMS IN SCIENCE

Directions: In each of the following exercises a problem is given. Below each problem are two lists of statements. The first list contains statements which can be used to answer the problem. Place a check mark in the parentheses after the statement or statements which *answer the problem*. The second list contains statements which can be used to explain the right answers. Place a check mark in the parentheses after the statement or statements which *give the reasons for the right answers*. Some of the other statements are true, but do not explain the right answers; do not check these. In doing these exercises then, you are to place a check mark in the parentheses after the statements which *answer the problem* and which *give the reasons for the right answers*.

1. In a motion-picture theatre the sound is more apt to be distinct and pleasing to the ear when

- a. the theatre is full of people () a.
- b. the theatre is nearly empty () b.
- c. the walls are of hard plaster () c.
- d. the walls are made of some soft, spongy material () d.
- e. heavy draperies are numerous () e.
- f. the seats are upholstered instead of plain wood () f.

Check the statements below which give the reasons or reason for your explanation above.

- g. The more completely speeches or sounds are reflected, the more distinct and pleasing they are to the ear () g.
- h. Sound is apt to be confused and indistinct and hence unpleasant when many echoes are present () h.
- i. Since dark draperies reflect very little light, they will also reflect very little sound () i.
- j. Sound is certainly more distinct when it is not absorbed by the walls () j.
- k. Smooth, hard materials tend to reflect sound waves; soft, irregular surfaces tend to absorb sound waves () k.
- l. Just as shaking a pail with one stone in it makes more noise than if the pail were full of stones, so will the theatre be more quiet if it is filled with people () l.
- m. Sound is most distinct when a minimum amount of it is reflected () m.

2. An electric iron (110 volts, 500 watts) has been used for some time and the plug contacts have become burned, thus introducing additional resistance. The iron will now produce

- a. more heat than when new () a.
- b. the same heat as when new () b.
- c. less heat than when new () c.

Check the statements below which give the reason or reasons for your explanation above.

- d. The heat produced by an electrical device is always measured by its power rating. It is independent of any contact resistance() d.
- e. Electric currents of the same voltage always produce the same amount of heat and burned contacts do not decrease the amount of electricity entering the iron () e.
- f The current which flows through the iron is reduced when the resistance is increased () f.
- g Increasing the resistance in an electrical circuit increases the current () g.
- h. An increase in electrical resistance increases the heat developed() h.
- i. Manufacturers of electric irons urge that the contacts be kept clean to maintain maximum efficiency () i.
- j. An increase in the temperature of a wire usually results in an increase in its resistance () j.
- k. Burned contacts increase the heat developed in an electric iron just as increasing the friction in automobile brakes develops more heat () k.
- l. The heat developed by an electric iron when connected to 110 volts is independent of the flow of current () l.

In handling a group situation the teacher would study Parts I, II-A, and II-B of the summary (pages 108-9) and orient his teaching accordingly. From the summary shown, he would probably conclude that his class needed additional experiences in making predictions and additional opportunities for applying facts and principles in justification of those predictions;¹ he might also reasonably conclude from Part II-B that he should take up with his class a consideration of the types of errors most frequently made and make clear why they are errors.

4. Tests of Ability to Apply Principles to Problems in the Social Studies

The general testing program just described with reference to science is also applicable to the social studies. Two examples of tests in thinking about social situations follow. The reader will notice that in

¹ This assumes, of course, that the group in general possessed the necessary information; that they *knew* the facts and principles involved in the situations. In the practical classroom situation this assumption can be checked readily by a brief test on information.

addition to the opportunity to make conclusions, the student also indicates the acceptable reasons in support of his conclusions. The interpretation of the summary sheet in the social-studies test differs somewhat from that in the science test. In the social problems there are no right-or-wrong answers; instead, the conclusions to be checked are so phrased as to represent certain typical philosophies of life. In almost every problem the alternatives offered include one or more that could be based upon the application of principles of democracy; another alternative might be an authoritarian one; a third, a *laissez-faire* alternative; and not infrequently a fourth alternative points toward tradition. The summary shows the frequency with which the student supports his conclusions with relevant arguments and the kinds of logical errors he makes when he resorts to irrelevant arguments.

In terms of guidance, the results of this test are almost directional for the teacher. Inconsistencies may be pointed out and the reasons for these inconsistencies made clear. The differing philosophies of life may be made explicit and the values of each discussed. The implications of an individual social outlook for everyday living may be explored by teachers and students together. Other ways in which such tests may serve for individual guidance and for group teaching will suggest themselves to teachers and others.

Other test devices for the measurement of skill in thinking are available; summary sheets that indicate students' achievement in each of the related skills have also been developed.¹

IV. ATTITUDES AND CONSISTENCY OF BELIEFS

The development of favorable attitudes toward important social issues has always been an important objective of teachers.

More recently, teachers have tended to avoid the use of the word 'favorable' with respect to the attitudes they are trying to develop in their students and have said that primarily they were interested in developing in their students a 'consistent' point of view, that they were indifferent to the belief as such so long as it was a consistent and integrated one. This shying away from what they thought of as 'propaganda' may be looked upon unfavorably by some of our philosophers and administrators. It must not be forgotten, too,

¹ Readers who desire copies of the instruments thus far described or of other tests related to thinking may secure them by writing to the Progressive Education Association, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. A small charge is made for individual copies of the tests and a small fee is also charged for the bulletins that describe how the tests are made, administered, and interpreted.

SUMMARY SHEET ON APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES
AND FACTS TO SCIENCE

Student's Name *Harold Brown* Grade *10*
School Date

Part I. Ability to make reasonable predictions in the given situations

		<i>Class</i> <i>Median</i>	<i>Class</i> <i>Range</i>
a. How many correct predictions were possible in the test	18 a.		
b. How many predictions were made	18 b.	14	9-18
c. How many of these were correct	6 c.	7	4-17

Part II-A. Ability to recognize the important reasons supporting *correct* prediction

		<i>Class</i> <i>Median</i>	<i>Class</i> <i>Range</i>
d. How many correct reasons were included in the total test	33 d		
e. How many reasons were checked	35 e.	18	16-35
f. How many of these were correct	10 f.	24	8-29

Part II-B. Analysis of Errors in Selecting Reasons Supporting Correct Prediction

Types of Errors	No. Checked		Class Median	Class Range
	Number in the Test	by This Student		
1. Technically False Statements	19	9	6	2-9
2. True, but Irrelevant, Statements	14	2	4	0-7
3. False Analogies	7	4	2	0-4
4. Popular Misconceptions of Truth	10	5	3	0-8
5. Assuming the Conclusion	6		1	0-3
6. Appealing to False Authority	6	4	2	0-4
7. Statements Involving Ridicule	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	1	0-3
Total	65	25		

that whereas many of these teachers *say* they are interested only in the consistency of outlook and not in particular viewpoints held, in reality they may be creating an environment for their students that is indisputably favorable to the development of humanitarian points of view with respect to important social issues. This is particularly true of that cluster of attitudes and beliefs commonly associated with the 'democratic' way of life.

It is not at all necessary, however, to discuss here the validity of the aims of instruction. It is our purpose to show how tests designed to

*(Summary Sheet, Continued)**Part III. Directions for computing the numerical score*

1. Number of correct predictions made (see I-c)	6	
2. Number of correct reasons checked (see II-f)	<u>10</u>	
3. Total Correct		$16 \times 2 = \underline{32}$
4. Number of incorrect predictions (subtract I-c from I-b)	<u>12</u>	
5. Number of incorrect reasons (subtract II-f from II-e)	<u>25</u>	
6. Total Wrong		$\underline{37} \times (1) = \underline{37}$
7. Total Score (subtract Total Wrong from 2 times Total Correct)		<u>-5</u>

Part IV. Summary

<i>Total Score</i>	<i>Class Median</i>	<i>Class Range</i>	<i>Rank in Class</i>	<i>No. in Class</i>
-5	35	-8 to 86	31	33

measure consistency of belief can be useful to teachers in the guidance of high-school boys and girls.

In the consideration of the next test, assume that the teacher has been trying to develop consistent points of view toward such social issues as democracy, economic individualism, labor and unemployment, race, nationalism, and militarism. Groups of teachers in conference have analyzed these issues into some of their respective important subsidiary problems and have pooled their experiences in the teaching of these problems with former classes of students. After analyzing the issues involved in each of these larger problems, they have discussed them in class, used them as subjects for debates, as subjects for the writing of themes, and, in some instances, as subjects to be explored in the community to find out what adults think about them. From all these experiences the teachers have been able to gather together statements of attitudes toward each of the important social issues. For every statement favoring one side of the issue, another, contrasting statement has been formulated. These pairs of statements occur on different forms of the test, and occupy the same numerical position on each form (see Sections 1 and 2 of the "Scale of Beliefs" shown on page 112).

In the administration of these tests one form is given one day, and the second form is given two or three days thereafter. Assume that

APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES TO A QUESTION OF SOCIAL JUSTICE

Problem: Tractor factories often use sand blasting in the process of smoothing rough castings. This process creates silica dust in the air, which is dangerous to the lungs and causes an incurable disease called silicosis. This disease is classed as an occupational disease, and many states require the employers to install preventive devices and to contribute to the compensation of those workers who contract the disease.

In anticipation of the state law requiring compensation to be paid by employers to all workers who contract silicosis, one of the tractor factories gave its 1400 foundry workers a physical examination. A few months later the factory closed down to install new machinery and protective devices required by the new law. When the tractor factory reopened, one hundred foundry workers were not rehired because they were found suffering from silicosis.

Conclusions: (Check the one with which you agree.)

- _____ A. I approve of the action of the tractor company.
- _____ B. This action of the company is not justifiable.
- _____ C. The action of the company is not morally right, but I approve of its action from a practical business standpoint.

Reasons: (Indicate the reasons which you would accept in support of the conclusion you have checked above by writing the appropriate letters in the margin.)

- _____ 1. Tractors should be produced as cheaply as possible.
- _____ 2. If these workers were paid for the injury to their health, competitors of this firm might be able to sell tractors cheaper.
- _____ 3. Industry has no right to make profits by methods which injure the health of its workers.
- _____ 4. As long as workers are well paid for what they are doing, they must accept the dangers which the work requires.
- _____ 5. Since most industrial concerns use these methods, it is not unfair for this company to be permitted to do likewise.
- _____ 6. The discharged workers suffered a permanent injury because of the kind of work they were doing.

(Fifteen additional reasons included in this test are not reproduced here.)

a group of students has taken Forms A and B and that the results have been tabulated on the summary sheets. The responses of our hypothetical Harold Brown are shown on such a summary.

Harold's teacher is concerned to find out what proportion of his responses to each major social issue was liberal, what proportion conservative, what proportion uncertain, and how consistent he was. We see that he was most

APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES TO RACE RELATIONS AND PROBLEMS

Problem: "Yuki." A large high school in California has a large number of foreign-born boys and girls among its students. One of these was Yuki, a well-dressed, gentle, and friendly Japanese girl. She spoke good English and made a wonderful record in scholarship during her high-school career. At the end, her academic record was better than that of any other student in her class. Since the best student usually becomes the valedictorian of the graduating class, the principal decided to make her the valedictorian. Immediately a storm of protest broke loose. Newspapers took it up; citizens called on the principal and threatened him; classmates announced they would not appear on the platform with a Japanese girl as their leader.

The principal's reply to these protests was that Yuki should lead the class or else there would be no valedictorian.

What is your feeling about the decision of the principal?

Conclusions: (Check one or more conclusions with which you agree.)

- _____ A. He was right in doing what he did.
- _____ B. He was probably right, but it was an impracticable and foolish thing to do.
- _____ C. The principal should have let the faculty and the students participate in making the decision.
- _____ D. He should not have decided to have a girl of an alien race for the school valedictorian.

Reasons: (Indicate the reasons which you would accept in support of the conclusion or conclusions you have checked above by writing the appropriate letters in the margin.)

- _____ 1. School is no place to fight out the issue of racial equality.
- _____ 2. The high-school students must learn not to let race prejudice affect their behavior.
- _____ 3. Race prejudice is inborn, and it is no use to try to do anything about it.
- _____ 4. The Japanese should be made to feel grateful that they can go to an American school. There is no point in making them feel superior.
- _____ 5. It is an established tradition that the best student in the class should be the valedictorian.

(Twenty-seven additional reasons included in the test are not reproduced here.)

liberal in dealing with labor and unemployment, but even here his liberal replies formed only 53 percent of his answers. It could be said that his percentage of liberalism is low and that it is least in issue of nationalism. Appropriately, he is most conservative in nationalism, and he is just about as conservative as

A SCALE OF BELIEFS

Section 1 — Items from Form A

1. Democracy is a form of government which can be satisfactorily adapted to the needs of our times.
2. As a rule, a war contributes to the permanent well-being of the winning nation.
3. Given equal opportunity, the Negroes can be as successful as the white people.
4. We should buy only American goods whenever they are available.
5. Public ownership of railroads would probably be for the best interests of the country.
6. If we attack intelligently the problems of poverty and unemployment, we can eliminate them.
7. The Supreme Court should declare unconstitutional any law which does not conform to the letter and word of the Constitution.
8. There should be no social discrimination against people who marry Negroes.
9. Wars and preparation for war develop in people, as a whole, noble qualities such as sturdy manliness and courage.
10. Most of those who suffer from unemployment have been too thrifless to save.

Section 2 — Items from Form B

1. The problems of our times cannot be handled successfully by a democratic form of government.
2. Though temporary prosperity may follow wars, eventually most nations participating in war are hurt by war.
3. Negroes, as a race, are lazy and inefficient, and we can never hope for them to do as well as white people.
4. In this day of economic interdependence, "Buy American" is a harmful economic policy.
5. The present low rates and the efficiency of railroads have demonstrated the superiority of private ownership.
6. Unemployment and poverty are the inevitable results of fluctuations in business.
7. In passing new laws, it is more important to consider their contribution to the welfare of people than their agreement with the letter and word of the Constitution.
8. I should not feel the same towards a person who married a Negro.
9. War appeals to low human motives and brings out what is cruel in human beings.
10. Workers do not earn enough to save the money necessary to support them through long periods of unemployment.

he is liberal His percentage of uncertain answers is lowest when he considers labor and militarism, and highest when he considers race, economic individualism, and nationalism. We get a picture of Harold which reveals no clear-cut pattern of consistent belief at all. In every one of the issues, he is both liberal, conservative, and uncertain, and in every one of them there is a reasonably high percentage of inconsistent answers. He is just about at the average of his class, but the class as a whole shows many inconsistencies.

SUMMARY SHEET — SCALE OF BELIEFS

<i>Total Statements</i>	<i>Social Issue</i>	Name <i>Harold Brown</i>			
		<i>Percent Liberal</i>	<i>Percent Uncertain</i>	<i>Percent Conservative</i>	<i>Percent Inconsistent</i>
		<i>Answers</i>	<i>Answers</i>	<i>Answers</i>	<i>Answers</i>
58	Democracy	34	26	40	33
26	Economic	30	35	35	38
	Individualism				
34	Labor and	53	15	32	26
	Unemployment				
20	Race	40	35	25	20
24	Nationalism	21	33	46	29
40	Militarism	38	17	45	28
	Total	37	25	38	30
		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	Class Median	50	22	28	30

What can the teacher do to help Harold, who is obviously confronted in this test with problems that lie beyond his present maturity and range of experience? Space forbids the elaboration of details of the possibilities of guidance, which may safely be left to the competent teacher. Our concern at the moment is to show how a test like that described may be useful in bringing to light the need for specific instructional guidance.

The discussion thus far has been pertinent to six specific social issues. Similar scales devoted to attitudes toward other social issues are available for teachers interested in guiding their students to more consistent beliefs. Teachers will differ in their rating of the importance of different social problems, but few will deny that the consistency of beliefs is an important aim in the teaching of boys and girls of high-school age.

V. TESTS FOR MEASURING APPRECIATION

1. Defining Appreciation

In literature, in the fine arts, in the sciences, and in the foreign languages, in fact in practically all the school subjects, much has been said in recent years about the development of appreciation. For many years little progress was made in the measurement of appreciation, partly because teachers neglected to define this concept in terms of student behavior. When we know what students do who have achieved some measure of appreciation, then we can better recognize degrees of achievement and patterns of achievement. With respect to appreciation as with all the other traits thus far described, groups of teachers have made an effort to define what they mean. The following explanation of what appreciation includes is the result of coöperative thinking of many teachers of literature and had its first application with respect to appreciation of the novel. Since then the same technique has been similarly applied to other literary forms: the drama, poetry, and the short story. It has also been applied to other art forms, such as color, textiles, sculpture, and so on. It is not to be assumed that these seven different aspects of appreciation that follow are all-inclusive or comprehensive. Intelligent teachers may want to add or subtract aspects.

WAYS IN WHICH THE APPRECIATION OF LITERATURE
MAY MANIFEST ITSELF IN BEHAVIOR

1. *Satisfaction in the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in a feeling, on the part of the individual, of keen satisfaction in, and enthusiasm for, the thing appreciated. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature finds in it an immediate, persistent, and easily renewable enjoyment of extraordinary intensity.

2. *Desire for More of the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in an active desire on the part of the individual for more of the thing appreciated. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature is desirous of prolonging, extending, supplementing, renewing his first favorable response toward it.

3. *Desire to Know More about the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in an active desire on the part of the individual to know more about the thing appreciated. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature is desirous of understanding as fully as possible the significant meanings which it aims to express and of knowing something about the genesis, its history, its locale, its sociological background, its author, etc.

4. *Desire to Express One's Self Creatively*: Appreciation manifests itself in an active desire on the part of the individual to go beyond the thing appreci-

ated, to give creative expressions to ideas and feelings of his own which the thing appreciated has chiefly engendered. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature is desirous of doing for himself, either in the same or in a different medium, something of what the author has done in the medium of literature.

5. *Identification of One's Self with the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in the individual's active identification of himself with the thing appreciated. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature responds to it very much as if he were actually participating in the life situations which it represents.

6. *Desire to Clarify One's Own Thinking with Regard to the Life Problems Raised by the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in an active desire on the part of the individual to clarify his own thinking with regard to specific life problems raised by the thing appreciated. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature is stimulated by it to rethink his own point of view toward certain of the life problems with which it deals and perhaps subsequently to modify his own practical behavior in meeting these problems.

7. *Desire to Evaluate the Thing Appreciated*: Appreciation manifests itself in a conscious effort on the part of the individual to evaluate the thing appreciated in terms of such standards of merit as he himself, at the moment, tends to subscribe to. The person who really appreciates a given piece of literature is desirous of discovering and describing for himself the particular values which it seems to hold for him.

With such descriptions of the student's behavior involved in appreciation, it is relatively easy to construct a test that will give students an opportunity to show their pattern of appreciation in terms of these seven aspects. A copy of Parts I and II of "Literature Questionnaire," Form A, is included at this point. This questionnaire is answered by students about two weeks after they have read the novel.

By inspecting the responses that Harold Brown made to the questionnaire (on a summary sheet not here reproduced) we find that he felt keen satisfaction in this particular novel, that he wants more like it, and that he has very frequently responded to the novel as if he were actually participating in the situations included in it. He showed least appreciation in answers pertaining to creativeness as an outgrowth of his reading; seemingly he had little desire of doing for himself, either in the same or in different medium, what the author has done in this particular novel. Evidently he was not stimulated to rethink his own point of view toward certain of the life problems with which the novel dealt.

The teacher could point out ways in which Harold might very well creatively express some of the favorable feelings which he had towards this par-

LITERATURE QUESTIONNAIRE — THE NOVEL

Part I

1. If you were to write a critical appreciation of this novel, would it be a more or less unfavorable one?
2. If you were discussing with your friends the books that you have read and enjoyed recently, are you fairly certain that this novel would not be one of the books which you would discuss?
3. Did you get really great pleasure out of reading this novel?
4. Did you complete the reading of this novel, once you had discovered what it was about, because you felt some obligation to do so rather than because you really wanted to?
5. After you had started this novel, did you at any time leave off your reading of it in order to engage in some other, more attractive activity?
6. Have you ever recounted to anyone not familiar with this novel any of the scenes or incidents which you yourself consider most interesting?
7. While you were reading this novel, were your periods of reading usually less than an hour in length?

Part II

8. Even after you had gotten well into this novel, did you find it relatively easy to put it aside whenever some practical consideration had to be attended to?
 9. Do you feel that the persons, places, situations, etc., portrayed in this novel will probably remain vivid in your memory longer than those of most novels which you read?
 10. Do you feel at the present time that you probably will never want to read this novel again?
 11. Once you had finished this novel, were you genuinely glad to be through with it?
 12. Do you think it likely that you will make an effort to read more of this author's work within the very near future?
 13. Would you prefer to buy some other novel for your library rather than this one?
 14. Have you any idea that you will ask your teacher or your librarian to suggest other novels similar to this one for your extra-class reading?
-

ticular experience; he could point out scenes worthy of revision, moods that might be captured in a poem or with music, scenes or characters worthy of portrayal in line or color, and so on.

The teacher who has studied individual records of the whole class would also find a basis for group teaching. He would try to formulate

teaching techniques that would offer opportunities to students to increase their appreciation where the literary experience might merit it.

It has been assumed in developing and interpreting this test that appreciation is a positive thing and something that is or is not inside each individual student. It has not been thought of as a series of external standards to which students are to give lip service. The questionnaire, therefore, must be interpreted, not in terms of an external standard, but in terms of each individual's pattern of appreciation as it applies to the particular novel read. In other words, the results on the summary sheet give to the teacher a partial picture of the way each student appreciated that novel. No one, probably, will *ever* be able to tell how any one student *should* appreciate a novel that he happened to read.

VI. SUMMARY

In this chapter sample situations selected from only a few testing instruments have been presented. These have related to some important aspects of thinking, to attitudes held toward important social issues, and to the appreciation of literature. These objectives were defined in terms of what students were expected to do who had achieved growth in those areas. Illustrative situations were presented that were designed to give students opportunities to show the presence or absence of the desired behavior. Ways of summarizing student achievement were given with respect to each of the objectives discussed and possible guidance procedures were suggested.

Similar techniques of measurement appropriate for the examination of study skills and work habits, social sensitivity, and social adjustment, creativeness, interests and purposes, are now in the process of development. These, it is hoped, will eventually serve as additional helps to teachers. The techniques discussed in the present chapter may also be suggestive to teachers who are interested in constructing their own examinations.

The techniques here presented are, of course, only a sampling of a comprehensive array of achievement tests developed during the past five years. There are many other types of tests than those described that are also aimed to study various aspects of thinking, and there are available to teachers many different attitude tests and scales and many tests and records relating to study skills and work habits. Interest questionnaires, reading record forms, diaries of interesting and significant experiences, are also parts of this more comprehensive program of measurement.

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CHAPTER IV

COUNSELING WITH STUDENTS

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I. BASIC NATURE OF COUNSELING IN EDUCATION

1. Counseling Not a New Activity

Guidance may be a twentieth-century educational term, but counseling is as old as formal education, or older. Good teachers have always been interested in students and counseled with them. Nor is counseling merely a function of education, modern or ancient. Counseling with others on all sorts of problems and perplexities has been a phase of man's social development for centuries. Although it is permissible for us to place boundaries around the term, so that we can systematically discuss its function in education, we should not consider ourselves as discoverers of a new activity.

2. Definition of Counseling

Before we consider the place of counseling in education, we should come to some agreement upon a definition. Here we shall look at counseling in its educational application.

First of all, counseling is personal. It cannot be performed with a group. 'Group counseling' is an anomaly; the two terms are not in harmony. 'Personal counseling' is a tautology; counseling is always personal.

Second, counseling in school always implies greater maturity and understanding on the part of the teacher or adult. This should not be apologized for. In a study of 5000 fifteen-year-old boys in Detroit,¹ eighty-two percent wanted adult companionship and counsel. Those having the least counsel at home (the nine percent who had reported

¹ Warren K. Layton. "Guidance needs of Detroit's 15-year-old pupils." *Occupations*, 15: December, 1936, 215-220.

'poor adjustment' with their families) were most eager for adult friends and counselors.¹ Stoltz and others in the California study of adolescence report their junior-high-school youngsters as first seeking the development of social habits with their fellows and then, after they had become more 'adult' and somewhat established in social skills, seeking adult companionship and counsel.² Counseling implies help sought, often from someone older.

Third, counseling involves a two-way process and is a *mutual* consideration of the problem or situation in question. It should not be advice-giving on the part of one and passive acceptance on the part of the other. Coaches who want to train boys to run do not do the track work for them. Counselors and teachers who want their students to develop problem-solving ability and self-reliance do not 'counsel' by solving the problem and giving the student the solution. The counselor is not there to serve as a sort of superior parent, father confessor, and vice-regent of God, satisfying as that might be to the ego of the counselor. The reading of Chapter XI, "The Counselor and the Counseling Situation," in the recent excellent book of the Elliotts³ will be helpful on this point.

In the fourth place, counseling is designed to help others. It has a definite purpose of assisting others to make adjustments, to develop their ability to see alternatives and to act upon them, to clarify muddy thinking, to resolve dependent attitudes, and to face reality in their own lives. Counseling is not synonymous with interviewing, since the latter may be used as a technique for any one of many purposes. As will be discussed later, the interview can be used to seek information or to give it, to provide therapy, or to stimulate thinking. As illustration of the uses of interviewing, note the "Table of Contents" to Bingham and Moore's *How to Interview*,⁴ or this statement from their first chapter, "The personal interview . . . may have any one or all of three main functions. It is used in influencing people or motivating people, in instructing them, and in securing information from them. . . .

¹ The preliminary data of this reference were amplified by Dr. Layton in a report before the University of Minnesota Conference on Guidance, June 14-18, 1937.

² Herbert R. Stoltz, Mary Hoover Jones, and Judith Chaffey. "The junior-high-school age." *University High School Journal*, 15: January, 1937, 63-72.

³ H. S. Elliott and G. L. Elliott. *Solving Personal Problems*. Chapter XI. (Henry Holt and Company: New York, 1936)

⁴ W. V. Bingham and B. V. Moore. *How to Interview*. (Harper and Brothers: New York, rev. ed., 1934)

This book deals primarily with the interview for fact-finding."¹ Counseling utilizes the interview among other techniques to the sole end of assisting the individual.

With these general characteristics in mind, particularly the last, one can readily see why the function of counseling is an ancient one in education and why all teachers would say they counsel students. On the other hand, if these characteristics are woven together and it is seen that *counseling is a personal and dynamic relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration for each other to the end that the younger, or less mature, or more troubled of the two is aided to a self-determined resolution of his problem*, then something of its more complex and specialized nature is seen.

At the risk of being called mystical, one could say that the focus of counseling is not on either the counselor or the student, but on what happens between them. A too common type of interview is information and advice-giving, thus:

counselor—————→student.

A less common and sometimes quite justifiable interview is the information-getting situation, thus:

counselor←—————student.

The interview definition given in the preceding paragraph, however, must be represented by this diagram:

counselor←————→student,

with the dynamics of the interview resting in the relationship between the two.

3. Place of Guidance and Counseling in Education

Chapter I of this Yearbook has clearly presented the thesis that there is represented in guidance a basic philosophy of education that should permeate the school's curriculum, teaching purposes, and instructional methods. It should likewise affect the administration of the school in determining such matters as flexibility of scheduling, administrative attitude toward extra-classroom activities and 'discipline,' type of community relationships established, and policy used in the selection of teachers. Two qualifications to this consideration of guidance must be stated. Guidance not only represents a point of view and an educational philosophy, but it also involves the use of certain specialized techniques, many of which must be performed by technically

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

trained personnel. This fundamental and inclusive view of guidance is a pioneer concept and is exemplified in its entirety in comparatively few schools. It is the only psychological and sociologically defensible conception, but it does not function on the 'all or none' principle. Schoolmen should see it in long-range view, analyze a given school situation to see at what point the new attack must first be made, and plan to devote the greater part of their professional lives to the realization of a guidance program based upon such a philosophy.

It should be clear by now that counseling is not all of a guidance program. It serves as an important means of personalizing student experience, interpreting information, adjusting school experiences to student need, discovering student problems and engaging in therapy or treatment of these problems. The guidance program, as discussed in this volume, involves not only counseling but also such other phases as orientation programs, group guidance, testing, and still other alterations of the school's program of instruction and administration. Viewed in another way, counseling becomes a technique or tool for achieving the goals of guidance. It is a means whereby such goals as vocational orientation, educational adjustment, and mental hygiene are achieved. Counseling is the means not only of *interpreting* information to the student, but also of *seeking* it for use in any of the major areas of guidance. It is the function of guidance that comes nearest to student response, teacher participation, and parent understanding.

If a major goal of education is the optimal development of the individual to meet contemporary life needs, then the function of counseling in meeting this goal should be apparent. Counseling is not only a most important means of relating curricular opportunities to pupil needs and of facilitating adjustment, but it is an important method also of discovering those very pupil needs that are the focus of the entire school organization. More specifically, counseling is a component part of instruction.

4. Casual and Purposive Counseling

Counseling, in common parlance, is such a generalized function that it is further necessary to distinguish between *casual* and *purposive* counseling.

The teacher or administrator who meets students, in the classroom and out, is inevitably led to make comments, conversation, and suggestions that are personal in nature and that affect the student's understanding of himself and his environment. Many times such casual or

spontaneous contacts are powerful factors in a student's development. They may personalize his school experiences, affect his attitudes and behavior, and vitally touch the critical areas of his emotional and intellectual life. Yet they are casual contacts, because only occasionally are they followed through to a thorough-going solution.

Purposive counseling, on the other hand, may be said to exist when systematic provision is made for this function to be performed by staff members whose time and training are adequate to meet the need. As will be shown more fully later, the relation between the teacher and the counselor or teacher-counselor is close and the distinction between them should be emphasized only in terms of attention and training. The counselor may utilize spontaneous and casual contacts and the teacher may follow through in many student relations. Nevertheless, a distinction between deliberately sought and chance-initiated relationships should be recognized as clearly as is the common end of both activities.

5. Counseling and the Teacher

We shall not attempt here to do full justice to the counseling functions of the classroom teacher. The educational philosophy supporting the value of these functions is presented in Chapter I. Their relationship to other functions and other guidance workers is discussed in Chapter X, while the rôle of a teacher as a counselor is assumed throughout the entire Yearbook. Whether the classroom teacher stands at the top or bottom of the ladder of guidance functionaries depends upon the organizational slant of the writer. In any event, the teacher is always in the picture.

Ruth Strang's *The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work* places "the classroom teacher having no assigned advisory duties" at the bottom of a list of eight types of educational workers who, under existing school conditions, have guidance responsibilities.¹ In terms of degree of specialized responsibility this position may be accurate, but in terms of the significance of the modern curriculum it is an underestimate of the teacher's position. Allen's famous chart, "Screening the Guidance Functions," places the classroom teacher next to the principal, with the home-room teacher and the class adviser following third and fourth.² This is in order of specialization of function, since "the

¹ Ruth Strang. *The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. P. 43. (Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1935)

² R. D. Allen. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. Opposite p. 118. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1934)

adviser performs only those functions that cannot be performed effectively by others." In this chart the guidance functions of "subject teachers" are to:

1. Arouse interest and develop right attitudes
2. Stress occupational information of the subject
3. Arrange trial projects in the subject
4. Encourage and develop special abilities
5. Effect remedial instruction in subject handicaps
6. Lead a club activity
7. Coöperate with adviser and home-room teachers

Williamson and Darley indicate that the teacher has a significant, but rather supplementary, function in personnel work. This is because the teacher is not trained in diagnosis, which, as they conceive it, is the heart of the program. The teacher must have much more adequate training in the appraisal of student potentialities and needs, in order to perform effectively his normal functions of teaching and counseling, but the more intensive and thorough diagnosis of student needs and abilities would, according to these authors, always be the task of a specialist. The personnel functions of the teacher, according to Williamson and Darley, are to:

1. Supplement the technical diagnosis made by counselors
2. Use personnel records in individualizing instruction
3. Supplement case-history records with anecdotal comments
4. Supply educational and occupational information in their fields of specialization

Nevertheless, "in the last analysis instructors have the greatest contact with students. Until this contact is leavened with positive attention to the individuality of each student in the group, personnel work will lack complete effectiveness, and instruction will miss an opportunity for more effective education."¹

The trouble with such definitions of the personnel functions of the teacher is that they are but halting steps in the right direction. Strang has classroom teachers "with no assigned advisory duties," Allen's teacher is a "subject teacher," Williamson and Darley have their teachers in "special fields." All these statements assume that teaching is instruction in subject matter, not the development of individualities.²

¹ E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley. *Student Personnel Work, an Outline of Clinical Procedures*. P. 74. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1937)

² We are speaking now of teaching in general education and at non-professional training levels.

There is a long road to travel before the goal is reached, but schoolmen must see that what we now call 'administration,' 'instruction,' and 'guidance' are warp and woof of the same cloth; that good instruction is impossible without individualizing and counseling as a dominating part of the process; that students are not *taught*, but grow; that the curriculum must be an outgrowth of students' individual and social needs, which are discovered through teacher-student contacts as well as by more formal methods.

Whatever our terminology, counseling is a significant function of teaching. The first, fourth, and fifth guidance functions of Allen's list and at least the second and fourth function of Williamson's and Darley's list depend upon individual counseling. An illustration of the place of the counseling interview in teaching is drawn from a paper written by one of the writer's former students.¹ In a field as technical as music, this illustration is particularly interesting:

In a discussion of how music shall be interpreted, a student can be encouraged to justify his reaction as to why he feels it as he does; from here it is a short step to those personal reactions and integrations which go to make the instructor's place in the whole interview technique most helpful. In other words, the point at which conference becomes interview and stays in that realm until the problem has been faced and discussed is a varying one.

A student came in recently to inquire about piano lessons. In the course of the conversation it developed that he had recently played for a club in San Francisco.

Instructor: Play something for me.

Student: All right, I'll try and wade through 'Lotus Land.'

(It developed that the student had worked on this number without help or suggestion from anyone; consequently it was rough in spots.)

I: (after hearing him play) Thank you. By the way, do you know anything about this chap Cyril Scott — who was he anyway?

S: (eager to show his knowledge) Oh yes, he was an English composer. He wrote two piano sonatas and a passacaglia.

I: Where did he live, do you happen to know?

S: I haven't the vaguest notion — somewhere near London I guess.

I: You're not far wrong, he lived just outside of London in one of the suburbs. He lived upstairs with a whole group of artist friends — I guess there were some strange 'ducks' in the group.

S: There were some philosophers mixed up with him, weren't there?

¹ Raymond Kendall, Instructor in Music, Stanford University. An unpublished manuscript on "Interviewing the Music Student"

Our philosophy teacher mentioned him the other day, now that I think about it. I wonder if that had anything to do with his music?

I: How could it?

S: I don't know, and yet these chords are rather strange — he doesn't seem to stay in one key for more than half a shake. I suspect he just sat down and wrote it when he didn't have anything else to do.

(We talked on a bit, and I gave him some songs to take home after it developed that his sister was a singer. He came back in a week having read everything about Cyril Scott he could put his hands on. Toward the end of the lesson he made this remark.)

S: You know, if he felt that way and really took metaphysics so seriously, no wonder he wrote as he did — and these songs, they're so elusive I can't make head or tail of them. I certainly admire him though. He wouldn't write unless he felt he was interpreting something or other that he didn't know what it meant.

I: You mean to say he wanted to give people a picture of what he saw or felt?

S: No, not so much that, but he seemed to want to have perspective, to see the relation of what he was trying to do to something worthwhile before he'd tackle it. I guess that's why I make such a mess of studying at times.

I: Why do you say that?

S: Well, I don't see any use in learning all about this or that without seeing what good it's going to do me.

Of course, this was fertile ground for a discussion that lasted for some time. By as effective questioning as could be mustered, he was led to answer his own questions and to start himself on the road to seeing how he could improve his own attitude towards study. The topic has been a frequent subject at our conferences since that time. His music project for the quarter has been an inquiry into the philosophical attitudes of a group of English musicians — a project which he has worked out with the coöperation of the departments of music and philosophy.

II. THE NATURE OF THE INTERVIEW

The 'interview' has a variety of purposes and applications and is used in many situations involving human relations. Its place in the counseling program has been discussed, but here we might describe the interview as an *event* in the *process* of counseling. It can be viewed as a tool or a technique or as the heart of a counseling program. Here, again, it must be remembered that *counseling* is the personalized phase of a more complete guidance program.

1. Literature on the Interview

A glance at recent literature reveals the wide usefulness of the interview and the amount of study being given to its functions. At least two of the several current studies of adolescence are giving intensive attention to the technique of the interview, the adolescent study of the Progressive Education Association stressing the dynamic nature of the information-securing and therapeutic interview, and the Adolescent Study of the University of Minnesota General College emphasizing the use of a flexible interview schedule for gathering information. This latter study has developed an ingenious method of using similar interview schedules with father, mother, and student so that conflicts may be revealed through the differences in reports made by the three individuals. These are current research projects of which no published reports have been made as yet, but there is a plentiful literature represented by reference to the interview in social work,¹ the interview in psychiatric study,² the interview in schoolroom and counseling situations,³ and the psychological nature of the interview.⁴

¹ American Association of Social Workers, Chicago Chapter. *Interviews, a Study of the Methods of Analyzing and Recording Social Case Work Interviews*. (Studies in the Practice of Social Work No. 1, Helen L. Myrick, Chairman. New York, 1928. 75 pp.)

Nannie E. Diehl and Robert S. Wilson. "Can listening become a casework art?" *The Family*, 14: June, 1933, 99-105.

Pauline Vislick Young and Joanna C. Colcord. *Interviewing in Social Work*. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1935. 416 pp.)

² Kenneth E. Appel. "Drawings by children as aids to personality studies." *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 1: January, 1931, 129-144.

E. Vannorman Emery. "First interviews as an experiment in human relations." *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 6: April, 1936, 268-282.

Norman Fenton. "The personal interview in adjusting emotional problems." *Occupations*, 12: March, 1934, Section 2, 72-78.

Louis A. Schwartz. "Social situation pictures in the psychiatric interview" *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 2: April, 1932.

³ Ethel Percy Andrus. "The counselor's interview to assist in the choice of subjects and occupations." *Occupations*, 12: March, 1934, 78-84.

S. E. Torsten Lund. "The personal interview in high-school guidance." *School Review*, 39: March, 1931, 196-207.

Howard Yale McClusky and Ernest H. Chapelle. "A study of the talk contacts of adolescent pupils with their teachers." *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 5: January, 1931, 303-310.

Luella C. Pressey. "Making interviews valuable to students." *The American College Personnel Association*, 24-28. (Report of Ninth Annual Meeting, Washington, D. C., February, 1932)

⁴ Lofton V. Burge. "The interview technique as a means of diagnosing." *Journal of Educational Research*, 27: February, 1934, 422-429.

The references here cited are representative though few, but Strang's recent bibliography contains sixty-one references.¹ Whether or not these studies, only some of which involve research or controlled investigation, represent a trend toward making the interview a scientific technique remains to be seen. 'The interview, an art or a science?' has long been a subject of discussion. The inconsistency of the argument is that these are not mutually exclusive concepts. There is an artistry in making use of the most careful of scientific techniques. Current studies should at least throw increasing light on the interview as a psychological tool.

2. Types of Interviews

The interview has been cited as a technique for gathering information from the student, for interpreting information to him, and for assisting him in a solution of his problems. The occasion for it in school may arise from scholastic or study-habit problems, vocational guidance needs, social situation problems, personality needs, or merely loneliness and the need of the student for reassurance. Each of these 'types' of interviews merges into the other. Assistance given in a problem of study skills almost inevitably must consider the student's personality and educational ambitions, and a problem of curricular selection cannot be adequately discussed without mention of vocational goals. Interviews may be classified as to origin or source, but there is no way in which the development or outcome of the interview can be neatly pigeonholed.

An interesting classification of types of students met in interview situations at a private boys' school and junior college is made by Vandervort:²

George W. Hartmann. "The interview as a research and teaching device." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 17: April, 1933, 205-211.

John A. McGeoch. "The relation between different measures of ability to report." *American Journal of Psychology*, 11: October, 1928, 592-595.

George K. Pratt. "Seeing the individual whole." *Occupations*, 13: November, 1934, 108-113.

Stuart A. Rice. "Contagious bias in the interview (a methodological note)." *American Journal of Sociology*, 35: November, 1929, 420-423.

Gladys C. Schwesinger. "The significance of vocabulary in the interview." *Psychological Clinic*, 19: June, 1930, 123-130.

¹ Ruth Strang. *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*. Pp. 139-143. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1937)

² Charles T. Vandervort. "Guidance in the private junior college." *Junior College Journal*, 2: June, 1932, 527-532.

1. The boy who has never been a complete scholastic success but is buoyant in spirit and unaware of the limitations in his own ability and wishes university preparation . . .
2. The boy who is rather bright but, owing to laziness or dissipation, wastes his time and becomes. . .
3. The boy with a fairly good ability but with a strong inferiority complex resulting from early home training or early school experience. . .
4. The mature boy who has seen too much of the world, is too sophisticated and therefore becomes a moral problem. . .
5. The boy who is old beyond his years. He is overly conscientious and therefore studies too much and takes life far too seriously. A very few boys each year probably injure their health in this way. They need to be taught to play. . .
6. The plugger who lacks native ability but who 'gets by' in junior college on stick-to-itiveness. This boy becomes a serious academic problem when the question of future university recommendation arises. . .
7. The athletic 'bum' whose sole academic interest is to remain eligible in order that he may play football. If the situation is worthy of serious consideration this student might be advised to go to an institution where this type of arrangement is encouraged. . .
8. The 'fresh guy' who grew to be too big for his home town before going to college. His malady is not serious and students usually take care of him themselves. . .
9. The good boy who is really too good for the rest of the student body and therefore cannot be accepted by them. He acquires the nickname of 'Lily' or 'Pansy.' . .
10. The 'apple polisher' who becomes a menace to the weak and unsuspecting teacher and uses this easy method of obtaining grades. . .
11. The cheater or stealer. This group may be divided into two separate divisions, only one of which involves moral turpitude. . .
12. The natural 'crabber' who is never satisfied with anything in the institution. Usually he likes the institution at heart but has so fixed his conduct pattern that he himself is unaware of his complaining. . .

This list of kinds of students frequently seen in interviews should not suggest that all students counseled are 'problem' students. Indeed, only a very small proportion are 'problem-students,' but many are 'students with problems' that need to be solved through personal contact. Counseling efforts in the past have too much considered the 'problem child' and neglected the manner in which counseling might

contribute to the development of ordinary children in the ordinary educational environment.

3. Mechanics and Materials of Interviewing

We have long paid lip service to the principle that interviews demand preparation, that all background knowledge regarding the student should be assembled and studied before the interview is held, but there is no principle more persistently violated in practice. There seems time only to see the students as they present themselves, one after another. Because we see so many students, we are pushed to find time to record notes on the previous interview, to say nothing of time to prepare for the next one.

Rationalizing our failure to do something because of a rush of business is an American characteristic but does not fully disguise the fact that not utilizing existing information on the student is little short of a crime. To say to ourselves: "But I simply haven't time to prepare to see him with so many other students waiting. I will have to do my best," is rather ridiculous, since our 'best' may be to have time to gloss over real problems, give a false assurance of security, and act like a real hypocrite. Achilles has said of the interview in vocational guidance, "Here the person to be guided expects the most — and probably gets the least."¹ Paraphrasing this, we might say that the most time should be spent in critical study of the background, test, and coördinating information on the student — where we spend the least time. Lee² discusses this point and estimates, from a survey of 493 schools, that only fifty percent of these schools use intelligence tests for guidance purposes and that thirty-six percent use achievement tests in the counseling of students.

This attack upon a common tendency in high-school and college counseling is not without point. We cannot attempt diagnosis without a study of diagnostic information. We cannot coördinate our counseling with that of others unless their notes are studied or they are seen personally. We cannot avoid wasting both the student's time and ours if we ask him for information about himself that he may have given from one to five times already and that is now on file. The only solu-

¹ Paul S. Achilles. "Methods of conducting and recording vocational interviews." *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 9: April, 1931, 303-308.

² Murray Lee. *A Guide to Measurement in the Secondary Schools*. P. 133. (D. Appleton-Century Company: New York, 1936)

tion to our dilemma is to refuse to see more students than can be adequately studied before counseling with them.

Not alone is it necessary to study all existing information in order to be fair to the student when we see him, but certain tests and inventories are also worth having in mind because they supply excellent wedges or introductions to an interview. Once a student has taken a test, often with the understanding that the results will be shared with him, then an interpretation of this test is the justification for calling an interview and makes a good introduction to a discussion of underlying problems. Aids like the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, the *Symonds-Block Student Questionnaire*, the *Bell Student Adjustment Inventory*, the *Wrenn Study-Habits Inventory*, or the *Achilles Aids to the Interview* are illustrations of such materials.¹

The recording of information obtained in the interview is troublesome, but important. It is easy to allow the means to take on the importance of an end, to spend too much time recording information. To other counselors, the time involved in recording seems very long, and they rationalize themselves into the belief that it is more important to see students than to record information. Hence valuable data are forgotten; one counselor cannot share what another has learned; and many blunders are committed in counseling because the recommendations of the previous interview are not at hand for consideration.

"Should notes be taken during the interview?" is a constantly recurring question. To do so is often to impress the student with the formality of the interview; not to do so is to lose valuable clues. Dean Gaw sometimes asks the student's permission to take down some point of information, saying, "That is a very important point. Do you mind if I jot it down so that we can refer to it again (or so I won't forget it)?" This pleases the student and is one way to avoid the surreptitious taking of notes in the presence of the student. The use of the dictaphone for recording notes immediately following the interview is gaining in popularity. It has the advantages of speed and completeness. There is danger that the counselor will ramble in his comments and prolong the recorded notes beyond the point where the thread of the previous inter-

¹ The Strong, the Bell, and the Wrenn forms may be had from the Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California; the Symonds-Block from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; and the Achilles from the Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

view can be picked up at a glance. It is so easy to talk! A real advantage, however, lies in thus recording test data and their interpretation from the test blanks themselves, concisely stating the student's problem, the counselor's suggestions or recommendations, and the follow-up points that should be checked in the next interview.

As to voluntary, unscheduled interviews versus scheduled appointments, after some years of trying both methods, the writer is personally in favor of the latter. The 'catch-as-catch-can' method of seeing students in one's office has the advantage of informality and friendliness, but when waiting lines form and students are shunted in and out like boxcars on a siding, with a constant consciousness of the 'main line' of waiting students, then the unscheduled interview loses its charm. Promptness in keeping student appointments, availability of the counselor as to location and hours, and the feeling that the student has the counselor's entire attention within the scheduled time are 'interview mechanics' of more than passing importance.

4. The Structure of the Interview

Interviews differ in structure, but there are certain fairly common aspects to all interviews of an information-giving or therapeutic type. The following steps are desirable in such an interview:

1. Prepare for it through a study of recorded information. The importance of this step has been discussed in the preceding section.

2. Establish *rappport* with the student. This has been mentioned so often in discussions of interviewing that it is a truism, yet too little has been said on how to achieve this *rappport*. Four observations are in point:

- (a) The counselor should have a reputation for honesty, kindness, and the keeping of confidences.

- (b) He should have a clear desk and as much of an air of leisure as can be mustered. The student can scarcely be confidential when the counselor appears rushed and troubled about many things.

- (c) Develop some opening conversational leads about the student on some matter of common knowledge and interest. The approach preferred by some counselors is to make a frontal attack, ask at once the nature of the problem, or state at once the apparent difficulty in which the student finds himself. This straightforward approach may give an immediate air of honesty and frankness to the interview.

(d) Manifest interest in the student's problem and responsibility for it, while insisting that the student make his own decisions.

3. Next, help the student analyze the obvious or stated problem, leading him into a more mature consideration of alternatives, keeping 'hands off' on the decision, but searching for deeper and more fundamental issues that may be involved.

4. Bring the student to a realization of possible courses of action, proceeding on the basis that what *he* thinks is more important than what you think.

5. Attempt to make, or to have the student make, a summary of your joint thinking before ending the interview, or a statement of how far he is along the road to a complete solution. Many interviews lose permanent effectiveness because the student leaves with a confused idea of what has occurred or of what may be the concrete outcomes of the discussion.

6. Whenever possible let the last word be on some *action*, some person to see, some report of developments to be made to the counselor, some information to be sought, some new habit or attitude to be developed. The counselor is interested in behavior changes. As such, he is interested in a continuity of action, decision, or attitude from the interview out into daily life and back again into the next contact with the counselor.

5. Further Suggestions about the Interview

At the risk of seeming dogmatic and perhaps trite, a few hints are listed as growing out of experience and research. These are sometimes so simple that they are overlooked in interviewing, and they are sometimes so searching that someone else must state them before they are recognized as having personal application.

1. The obvious problem presented is often not the underlying or significant one.

2. A fundamental difficulty is seldom solved in one interview.

3. Avoid an assumption of a 'problem' connection in every interview, since this may lead to patronizing on the part of the counselor.

4. Assume that the counselor may learn at least as much from the student as the student does from the counselor.

5. It is the student, not the counselor, who should make decisions.

6. The counselor should beware of talking too much.

7. A single interview is an unreliable basis for a judgment of stu-

dent ability or character. Likewise the interview without supporting data is unreliable.

8. Other people should be used for reference, but the counselor should not shirk responsibility for the student's problem.

9. The counselor must perceive when to terminate the interview.

10. Allow the student time for easy meditation — the student may not think so rapidly or be so articulate as the counselor.

11. The student's thinking should not be biased by having the counselor's opinion and "now I think" scattered throughout the interview.

12. The counselor should avoid disillusionment of the student or disagreement with him in too harsh or abrupt a fashion. On the other hand, he must avoid being a sentimentalist or a 'Pollyanna.'

13. The counselor must not show surprise or resentment at anything the student may say. Face squarely his criticisms of other teachers or of the school or of the social system. If the student makes unexpected revelations or statements, hear him like an equal and discuss these statements seriously and impartially.

14. Many of these suggestions are summarized by saying that the teacher or counselor must be impartial and objective in his dealings with the student, must *assume* some maturity on the student's part in order to encourage greater maturity, must respect the student's personality and nourish self-determination.

III. THE DEPENDENCE OF INTERVIEWING ON BASIC INFORMATION

1. Diagnostic Information

In Chapters II and III the diagnostic and testing phases of guidance programs are treated extensively. The student will become aware of his tested abilities and interests primarily through their interpretation in the interview. To give students information on test scores by any other means than by personal interpretation is questionable. Misinterpretation and over-emphasis on test results are apt to occur unless the student is led to see the significance of a given diagnostic measure in its relation to other factors.

The interview must deal with specifics as well as intangibles and subtleties if we are to rescue counseling from the limbo of sentimentalism. Unless the counselor deals with objective facts regarding the student, the school, social conditions, or job opportunities, the student will be encouraged to exist in an unreal and idealistic school atmosphere. Good interviewing, then, is highly dependent upon case-history records, previous school records, and the results of tests and rating scales.

The counselor may not be the individual who administers tests or records data, but he must be as thoroughly conversant with the basic psychological limitations and uses of these materials as is the personnel-research officer or technician. He is in a position both to suggest needed studies and to utilize their results. To quote from the proposed Charter of the American College Personnel Association, "One of the major responsibilities of the personnel worker is to define problems in various areas that need investigation." The interview, then, is highly dependent upon diagnostic information, while at the same time it gives rise to suggestions for student personnel research.

2. Basic Information Supplied through Group Guidance and Printed Matter

There has been presented in Chapter V a discussion of the rôle of group guidance and other means of supplying background information. The intention at this point is to indicate how much more effectively and economically the interview can be conducted if background information has been supplied to the student. Much of this can be presented to groups and through more impersonal printed materials.

Certain information is common to a majority of the interviews held — information about school conditions, vocational requirements, psychology of study, or principles of mental hygiene. The relation between group guidance and interviewing is close, with the sequence most frequently from the group contact to the personal one. The basic purpose of group guidance is somewhat broader, however, than merely supplying background information. Group guidance should portray common student problems and the information necessary to an understanding of them. When this information is presented impersonally, each student has an opportunity to see himself in proper perspective and in relation to these common human problems. This paves the way to a more critical and personal self-analysis in the interview with the counselor. With the perspective of a variety of problems common to all, the student is ready to profit from the counselor's interpretation of diagnostic information pertaining to him as an individual. The group guidance technique assists the student in an integration of his school experiences, but the unique aspects of this integration depend upon the student's own application and the assistance secured from the counselor.

Vocational and school information is commonly presented through printed materials. The counselor often saves time by showing the student where to get more basic information through pamphlets and books.

These must be chosen to meet a given student's need or they will be of little value. Shorter treatments of vocational conditions, study habits, and educational requirements are more useful than are longer books and highly factual materials.

The use of outside speakers to give information on vocations and colleges is a common and much abused practice. Severe restrictions need to be placed around the utilization of this method. A practical set of suggestions on using vocational speakers prepared by the National Occupational Conference is reproduced in Chapter V of this Yearbook, pages 162-163.

IV. THE COUNSELOR IN THE SCHOOL

1. The Teacher-Counselor

Schools vary widely as to the title of the counselor, the amount of time devoted to guidance functions, and the relation of teaching, counseling, and administrative duties. Richard Allen has coined the term 'class counselor' to designate the part-time counselor who acts as a 'generalist' in performing the three functions — group guidance, individual counseling, and maintenance of personnel records.¹ This 'generalist,' serving from two hundred to three hundred students, is assisted by the counseling specialist on the one hand and the home-room or subject teacher on the other.

While Allen's terminology may not be acceptable to all, the principle involved is sound. A modification of this is expressed in the belief that *most* counseling will be done by the teacher (often it is 'casual' counseling) or by the teacher who is selected to spend part of his time in counseling (a 'teacher-counselor'). Even in large systems the teacher-counselor will be the person who can best keep in touch with the guidance specialist (vocational counselor, health officer, mental hygienist, psychologist, or educational diagnostician), with teaching specialists, and most of all with students, because his counseling is considered as a normal extension of teaching functions. Quoting from a discussion of this by Marion Brown:²

If every teacher were trained in personnel work and were equipped in personality and interest to assist in the guidance program, the entire program would be better for the active and interested coöperation of all.

¹ *Op cit.*, pp. 3-8.

² Marion Brown. *Deans at Work*. P. 143. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1930)

However, few schools can choose the members of the faculty on the basis of their ability to do this work as well as upon their promise of success as classroom teachers. A satisfactory system has been adopted in some schools of appointing counselors who teach half-time and devote the remainder of their school day to counseling a group of students. Chosen because of ability, training, personality, and interest in the work, they focus upon educational and vocational guidance, but come into contact with many of the contributing factors in children's lives which make for success or failure

An even more pertinent statement might be taken from a chapter written by Virgil Dickson: ¹

We prefer the teacher-counselor plan because it keeps the counselor closer to the realities of school life as they exist from day to day in the relationship between teacher and pupil. The continuous contact with the pupil from term to term gives opportunity for the development of a more intimate acquaintance with each pupil; it furnishes a steady policy of guidance for the pupil; and it gives to the counselor a variety of experience which helps to prevent counselor-crystallization.

There is another point of view to be considered: namely, that the teacher must do *all* counseling as a part of his teaching responsibilities and without extra time for it. Two reasons seem to lie behind this notion.

One is that of expediency, since size, finances, and lack of an adequate appreciation of need will keep many schools from making provision for a counselor or teacher-counselor. Ruth Strang writes ² "that the 10,000 or so small high schools enrolling less than one hundred pupils cannot be expected in the near future to add specialists or to even give time for daily class work counseling. The teacher and principal must expect to learn the capacities and interests of their pupils and help them to achieve self-direction and self-control in reaching the goals indicated by the diagnosis."

The second reason for this point of view is that there may be a complete permeation of education by the philosophy of guidance, to the end that all general counseling is performed as a function of the teaching process. In Chapter I appears the statement: "Ideally, there

¹ W. M. Proctor and Nicholas Ricciardi (editors). *The Junior High School*. P. 191. (Stanford University Press: Stanford University, 1930)

² *Op. cit.*, p. 63.

would be no such thing as a guidance program existing as a separate or self-contained entity. Guidance and instruction would be functioning as inseparable parts of the educative process." This fusion of guidance and instruction is entirely defensible as an ideal to be sought for, perhaps through several generations of effort. There is a transition period necessary, however, wherein selected individuals must assume a larger share of counseling functions than would be necessary under a more unified educational program.

The writer is convinced of the superiority of the concept of the 'teacher-counselor.' The full-time counselor should be restricted to specialists in large systems or to directors of guidance programs. But the assumption of *all* general counseling functions by teachers smacks of Utopia and of a diffuseness of function that defies administrative clarification. The individual selected by virtue of training and talents to act as a counselor can best serve normal needs by keeping in intimate touch with classroom teaching and by acting as both teacher and counselor.

2. Contacts of the Counselor with Other Members of the Staff

If an interview is to be effective, the counselor must maintain close contact with other persons who are acquainted with the student. What has taken place before this interview and who else has seen this student should contribute to the counselor's present understanding. A cumulative record that 'absorbs' all contacts made with the student within the school is a necessity for successful counseling. The complete effectiveness of interviewing is dependent upon this type of relation. Different individuals — class teachers, counselor, home-room teacher, principal — counsel with a student. Much confusion results when each adviser operates independently. In some cases they will give conflicting counsel.

No one counselor can possibly see the many sides of a student's personality that can be glimpsed by a variety of teachers and counselors, each seeing him under different circumstances and each, by virtue of his own personality and position, stimulating a different type of response from the student. A system of teachers' reports on contacts with students enriches the counselor's individual folders and throws a many-hued spotlight on the interpretation of objective data.

The General College of the University of Minnesota provides a pad of counseling blanks for the desk of each teacher and administrative officer. The blank has this simple construction:

Student's Name: _____

Summary of Student's Statement of Problem:

Recommendations made:

Date: _____

Initials: _____

When a student sees a teacher about dropping a course, or the dean about his scholastic standing, or a teacher about a personal problem, a memorandum of this is made on the blank just described, which is sent to the counselor's office and placed in the student's folder. No counselor, teacher, or administrative officer has an appointment with a student about any serious matter without first examining his folder. Another institution has a systematic plan for securing reports from each teacher on every student in his classes. The form is simple and the coöperation necessarily voluntary, but a decidedly better understanding of each student is provided by the reports that are submitted.

3. The Counselor's Personality and His Position in the School

It is trite to stress the effect of the counselor's personality upon the effectiveness of counseling; that has been indicated in what has previously been said of establishing *rapprochement* in the interview, of the counselor's showing a sincere interest in the student while at the same time maintaining an impartial and objective attitude toward the student's problem, and of his withholding a too obvious statement of conclusions while leading the student to make his decision. The counselor who is ill at ease with students, the ultra-efficient counselor, the meticulous and boring counselor, the counselor who prizes facts above personality, the counselor with a neurotic or personality twist of his own, and the sentimentalist are too common examples of how personalities can defeat good counseling.

The position of the counselor, teacher-counselor, and guidance specialist in the school is discussed in Chapter X. There is a clear relation between the title, the position in the school, and the assigned duties of a counselor and the effectiveness of his work. For many schools, the placing of a counselor on the administrative staff will

injure him in the eyes both of the students he is to serve and of his erst-while colleagues on the teaching staff.¹ The assumed regulatory functions of the administration may occupy too much of his time and divorce him from the sympathetic coöperation of teachers so necessary for good counseling. In other schools, a director or head counselor should be made a member of the administrative staff. In many small schools, counseling will be performed by teachers, with the principal acting as director and coördinator of an integrated effort to meet student need.

While dogmatic assertions must not be made and while the reader must be referred to Chapter X for many excellent administrative suggestions, the writer believes that most 'teacher-counselors' must be just that, and that teaching strengthens the position of any guidance worker and improves his relation with both students and colleagues. The time must be sought when a more wholesome integration of the total program of student experiences within the school will make unnecessary our present arbitrary distinctions between counselor, teacher, and administrator.

4. The Pooling in the Educational Clinic of Efforts at Counseling

Although counseling has been defined as an individual affair, a still more effective diagnosis can be made by pooling the counseling efforts of several. (This counseling should not be confused with 'group guidance,' wherein fundamental problems are discussed by a counselor or teacher with a group of students.)

This function of sharing and of providing for a clinical discussion of students has also been termed an 'educational clinic,' a term probably to be credited to Dr. Norman Fenton, Director of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research. To him, at least, must go credit for a systematic promotion of its values.

The pooling of counseling efforts has several advantages. The sharing of the several contacts with a given student provides for a more complete and rounded understanding of his characteristics and problems. This has been mentioned as a value of cumulative records and the integration of all information and interviews.

The pooling may be that of technical background and information. Although only one member of the group may have had personal con-

¹ The situations here described are clearly those of schools in the 'transition period,' where counseling and guidance are recognized as important, but are not thoroughly fused or integrated with the entire educational program.

tact with a student, this counselor's description of the student may be quite sufficient to permit every member of the group to suggest approaches and clues that arise from his particular training and understanding.

A corollary of these two advantages of an educational clinic should be obvious; namely, the benefit in understanding and training that comes to every member of the group as he hears the problem discussed from the point of view of first one specialist and then another. This may be the most valuable single method of faculty education in counseling problems and techniques. Not only can the counselors and specialists be members of the clinic, but faculty members also may be brought in from time to time, either to contribute their knowledge of a given student or to listen to the discussion.

The educational clinic must have a chairman or director who is a master in his field. The pooling of equal degrees of ignorance may lead only to fruitless and time-consuming conversation. If education is to adopt medical terminology and have 'clinics,' it must also adopt medical thoroughness and have at least one member of the group with good training, a critical attack toward facts, and a wide acquaintance with techniques. This specialist may be in one field or another, depending upon the most urgent need of the counseling program. If vocational guidance is a problem in the school, then a specialist in that field (who must necessarily be well versed in educational and vocational diagnosis as well as in vocational information) may act as leader of the clinic with others contributing to the limit of their knowledge of techniques involved. Mental hygiene may be another focus, pupil mortality another.

Within any one clinic, or 'counseling seminar,' if the other term seems too specialized, several points of view should be represented. Those of the classroom teachers and of the specialists in vocational guidance, mental hygiene, health, and psychological testing are examples. If in a college, dormitory and student employment officers should be added. Such clinics are sometimes operated as if entirely concerned with scholastic and vocational diagnosis. It would seem most valuable that any approach to student problems should represent those who see the student in his college environment, classroom, home or dormitory, student organizations, and part-time work contacts, as well as those who are skilled in psychological diagnosis.

The educational clinic should be recognized as the logical climax of a counseling program. 'Administration' of a program may in some

instances be informally provided by such a device. Earlier mention has been made of the suggestions for research that may arise from counseling. The educational clinic, in particular, can be a fruitful source of investigations. It can lead both to the discovery of curricular deficiencies and needs for new approaches and to the recognition of administrative barriers to a unified educational program. The sessions of the clinic should be regularly scheduled and should have a regular leader and a few regular key members, with other persons invited from time to time. Attention may be given to selected students as a focus of discussion, or to types of problems and techniques with students as illustrations, or even to the counseling program as a whole and how to increase its effectiveness. Whatever the focus selected, it should be followed through consistently for a semester or several months, in order that some thoroughness of treatment may be secured.

SELECTED AND ANNOTATED REFERENCES

- (1) ALLEN, R. D. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1934)

Chapter I, "The Class Counselor,—a Generalist or a Specialist?" has been discussed somewhat in Chapter I of this Yearbook. The concept involved approaches the 'teacher-counselor' discussed throughout the Yearbook. Chapter III, "The Interview and Individual Adjustment," contains a brief but fundamental discussion of the rôle of the interview, the best order of interviewing, and types of interview.

- (2) BINGHAM, W. V., and MOORE, B. V. *How to Interview*. (Harper and Brothers: New York, rev. ed., 1934)

Chapters I, II, III, VIII, XII, and XIII will be found most helpful for the counselor in the school. Much research evidence is given, as well as practical techniques. A bibliography of 389 references in all phases of interviewing in school, industry, law, etc., is appended.

- (3) ELLIOTT, H. S., and ELLIOTT, G. L. *Solving Personal Problems*. (Henry Holt and Company: New York, 1936)

The entire book is a most valuable treatment of the mental-hygiene phases of counseling, particularly of school counseling.

- (4) KOOS, L. V. and KEFAUVER, G. N. *Guidance in Secondary School*. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1932)

Chapter III, "Preliminary Consideration to Counseling," treats of the consideration and interpretation of objective data prior to the interview and involves a fundamental consideration of prediction and records. Chapter IV, "Counseling the Individual," contains fifty pages of research and interpretive material on counseling various types of students. Both chapters have excellent bibliographies.

- (5) LEE, J. MURRAY. *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools*. (D. Appleton-Century Company: New York, 1936)

Chapter III on "The Use of Measurement in Guidance" is a discussion of the subject in specific terms, based upon recent research. The appendix contains a carefully selected list of tests for use in secondary schools, compiled by Percival M. Symonds and the author.

- (6) STRANG, RUTH. *The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York, 1935)

Chapter IV on the rôle of the classroom teacher in guidance and Chapters XIV to XIX on the various techniques used in counseling, such as the case study, the interview, tests, ratings, the daily schedule, and observations, are valuable sections of a book having a broad perspective, research backing, and a treatment of practical details.

- (7) WILLIAMSON, E. G., and DARLEY, J. G. *Student Personnel Work: an Outline of Clinical Procedures*. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1937)

This book is an excellent treatment of the techniques of psychological diagnosis, particularly diagnosis based upon objective data. The "Introduction," by Donald G. Paterson, and Chapters II, "Achieving Individualization in Education," V, "Analytic Techniques in Counseling," and VI, "Clinical Procedures," are valuable for all counselors, particularly for those interested in a thorough-going analysis of student needs and characteristics.

CHAPTER V

GUIDANCE THROUGH GROUP ACTIVITIES

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I. BASIC GUIDANCE PROBLEMS INVOLVING GROUP ACTIVITIES

Guidance is concerned with the best possible growth of individuals who will exemplify in their personalities the fullest realization of inner potentialities along lines consistent with the highest welfare of the group. If the guidance service is to influence personality development in a significant manner, it must be an active agent in the complex process of continuous interplay between the individual and his environment, physical and social, through which learning and growth occur. This can best be done when guidance becomes an integral part of the entire educational program.¹

In a democratic social order, a guidance service in public educational institutions is charged with the responsibility for reaching and affecting all individuals in ways to stimulate their best growth rather than being concerned only with the maladjusted or with any favored few. In early years guidance may function in many respects without the child's attention being directed to the process. The skillful manipulation of the environment may care adequately for many aspects of growth and adjustment that the child is not yet ready to meet constructively with the conscious exercise of his own powers. Democratic self-determination by the individual, however, necessitates a growing awareness of problems of human adjustment, personality development, and effective living, and an increasing control over the processes involved. The best interests of both the individual and the group in a democracy rest upon this developmental approach to the education of

¹ This point of view with respect to guidance is developed more fully in Chapter I, "Guidance and Purposive Living." Chapter VII, "Guidance in Personality Development," explains the importance of the social environment in the growth of personality.

citizens rather than upon a remedial or adjustment service following the appearance of maladjustment.

Effective living demands power of self-direction. Self-direction requires understanding of self and of the world of people and things, as well as the ability to meet and solve ever-new problems of living resulting from the interaction of these factors. The objectives of guidance are not fully achieved until the individual has mastered this science and art of self-direction.

A guidance service concerned with these fundamental problems cannot be performed adequately in a democratic educational program through individual contacts alone; it demands also careful planning and organization of group aspects of the program. The widely prevailing home-room organizations and the rapidly increasing numbers of group guidance classes and of guidance activities within core curricula in the secondary-school, orientation courses in the college, and conference methods used with cohesive groups both within and without the regular educational program, attest to the extensive recognition of the need for guidance through group activities. Sometimes, however, these group activities are planned and carried on without clear recognition of their basic relation to the total guidance service and of their possible contributions to personality growth and effective living.

II. SOURCES OF THE GROUP APPROACH TO GUIDANCE

1. The Recognition of Common Human Problems

Experience in counseling reveals many common and recurring adjustment problems. Individuality means a unique combination of potentialities and environmental situations, a unique combination of common human problems in a unique setting. "The strands are ancient, but each individual is a new knot."

Several current research studies¹ are directed toward the fuller

¹ C. Gilbert Wrenn, of the University of Minnesota, lists in an unpublished description, "Researches in Adolescence," the following organizations or institutions conducting such studies under subventions of the General Education Board: The American Youth Commission, The Progressive Education Association, Shady Hill School, Cambridge, under the direction of the Harvard Psychological Clinic, The General College of the University of Minnesota, The Child Welfare Institute at the University of California at Berkeley, and University High School at Berkeley, California. Another promising study is the Guidance Experiment sponsored in Branch County by the Kellogg Foundation and the University of Michigan under the leadership of Howard Y. McClusky to survey the activities, interests, and problems of young people between the ages of 14 and 25, and to improve their opportunities in various aspects of living.

understanding of the adjustment problems of normal adolescent youths. The following list of youth problems has been included in a recent report of the American Youth Commission: ¹

- (1) To find a satisfying place among fellow youth
- (2) To experience personal achievement
- (3) To be able to establish and enjoy a happy home
- (4) To understand and improve political and economic conditions
- (5) To maintain health and maximum physical efficiency
- (6) To participate in enjoyable recreational activities
- (7) To resolve philosophical complexes

The following list of common problems of secondary-school students was compiled by a group of experienced counselors coöperating with a committee of college teachers of guidance and city directors of guidance in the process of constructing a curriculum in group guidance for Grades X to XII.²

How can I improve my ability to get along with people?

How can I make the most of my time at work and study?

How can I know my real interests?

How can I know my own special abilities?

What should be my attitude toward work?

What should be my attitude toward recreation?

What is my responsibility toward the property of other persons?

What are the special advantages and purposes of each elective subject?

Is there any advantage in making plans for from three to five years ahead?

How can I be sure that I am choosing the right subjects in preparation for the college of my choice?

How can I play safe in my choice of an occupation?

To what extent should I consider occupational rewards other than money?

Are there some goals and possessions in life that cannot be measured by material success?

What are the responsibilities of parents, teachers, counselors, and pupils in regard to the planning of the education of each individual?

What can graduates of this high school do during their first year out of school?

Where should I draw the line in games of chance — gambling and lotteries?

How can I make the most of my talents or special abilities?

¹ Harl R. Douglass. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. (American Council on Education: Washington, D. C., 1937)

² Richard D. Allen, Frances J. Stewart, and Lester J. Schloerb. *Common Problems in Group Guidance*, pp. 9-12. (Volume I of the Inor Group Guidance Series. Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1933)

What personal habits and attitudes will help me to be successful?

What habits and attitudes may interfere with success? Smoking and drinking?

How can I develop a pleasing personality?

To whom can I go for reliable assistance in the choice of an occupation?

What habits and attitudes may interfere with success? Gossip?

How can I recognize qualities of good leadership in others and develop them in myself?

What do the graduates of this high school do during the first three years after they leave it? The first five years?

What is the relation between wealth and service?

How can I improve the use of my leisure time?

How can I save and spend money wisely?

What should be my attitude towards the opinions of others?

What is my responsibility towards persons who are strangers; different; peculiar; handicapped?

Where should the lines be drawn on little everyday matters of honesty, graft, etc.?

What is vocational adjustment and how can I improve my chances of satisfactory adjustment in my vocation?

How can I be sure that I have mastered a subject?

What are some of the ways in which I may increase my chances of success in college?

How can I make the most of my opportunities for participation in student activities?

How can I avoid unnecessary drifting and detours?

How can I know which occupation to select?

How can I judge which college I should choose?

How can I learn about local occupational opportunities?

How can I learn about local educational opportunities?

How can I earn my way through college?

Why are some people unemployed even in normal times?

How can I be loyal to my associates and also to my employer, teacher, school, or community when their interests conflict?

How can I get and hold a job?

When should I change jobs?

What about overcrowded, unusual, and seasonal occupations?

How can I discuss my choice of college and other problems with some representatives of the college?

How can I discuss my vocational interests with persons engaged in that field?

Should women compete with men in occupations?

When is a person successful?

How can I know which special school to attend after I leave high school?

Such a list suggests the importance, range, and ramifications of these common human problems.

2. Recognition of Individual Differences and of the Need for Self-Appraisal

Research in the field of the human personality has revealed the tendency in unselected groups toward the distribution of most human characteristics according to the normal probability curve. The studies also indicate wide individual differences in rate of growth in various respects, as well as in the total pattern of characteristics. All these findings point to the need for a wholesome adjustment of the life pattern of activities with the growing personality pattern of the individual.¹ Innumerable case studies of maladjusted individuals have shown that many difficulties are due to discrepancies between these two factors. They point to the need for accurate knowledge of self as a basis for making significant choices of activities and for projecting life plans. The dictum, "Know thyself, accept thyself, be thyself," embodies basic principles of mental hygiene. The application of this principle involves self-knowledge of strong, mediocre, and weak points and the understanding of how to build a life in harmony with one's potentialities, making the most of strong points and the best of weak ones. It requires techniques of self-appraisal and self-direction that can be acquired only with much well-directed study and practice.

Self-appraisal is a life-long task and is rarely dramatic in nature, though properly directed it may be profoundly interesting to students. The barrage of commercial advertising of quick and easy methods of 'character analysis'² is likely to seem alluring to many puzzled or perplexed individuals and one important task in guidance is that of helping adolescents to develop sound understandings and methods of continuous self-appraisal. This service involves instruction, testing, and the direction of study, for which group activities are essential in most schools if all students are to be reached. Also the group approach provides desirable opportunities for objective impersonal consideration of many problems of self-appraisal.

The mistakes that young people make in their own personal and social relationships doubtless have much influence upon their success

¹ See Chapter VII, "Guidance in Personality Development," for a further consideration of the nature of individual differences and methods of measurement.

² Dorothy Yates gives excellent descriptions of these methods in *Psychological Racketeers*. (Bruce Humphries, Inc., Boston, 1932. 232 pp.)

and happiness in life. Frequently the pattern for such relationships has been set at a very early age in the family or neighborhood environment. In such patterns personal advantages, or narrow group advantages, frequently play a dominant part in determining the attitudes of the individual. In many of these problems each individual is left alone to solve the problem as he sees fit. The interests and attitudes of other people have no hearing in the court over which the individual himself presides as judge. A person whose experience has been narrow and limited may be handicapped during his entire life by the fact that he has had no opportunity for the socialization of his opinions, attitudes, and habits. The traditional curriculum of the school provides no place for the discussion of these problems. They do not fit into any of the usual subject classifications. It is important that the modern school should broaden its curriculum to include these problems of personal and social relations, in order that the school may effectively perform its most important function — that of socializing the experiences and judgments of individuals. Such expansion involves the provision of opportunity for normal wholesome social relationships and for the direct study of problems related thereto.

3. The Need for Information by Students concerning Conditions and Opportunities in School and in Society

To make sure that students are properly informed concerning conditions and opportunities is no simple matter. In fact, the business of advertising through newspapers, magazines, radio, and other media is an enterprise in which time and money are spent lavishly to inform people about opportunities that result in a financial return to someone. In educational projects of a commercial nature alone far more money is spent for the selling of services to the public than is spent by the public schools for informing students about opportunities freely open to them.

It is a matter of social concern, rather than merely of individual advantage, that each student in the public schools should be thoroughly informed concerning these free educational opportunities provided for him by society. It is not merely for his own advantage that he should be induced to undertake suitable education and training, but for the advantage also of his neighbors and of his community. It is difficult to estimate the sphere of influence that extends from such a service far beyond the immediate advantages that any individual reaps as a result of his education. It is regrettable that there is no measure-

ment of it in terms of dollars and cents that can be appreciated by both the individual and society as effectively as the results of advertising can be measured by the person to whom the profits accrue.

Leaving the financial problems and considering only the human values involved, it is desirable that members of the teaching profession set themselves seriously to the task of efficiently motivating suitable education beyond the age of compulsory attendance. The task is a very serious one, not to be underestimated. Printed courses of study and catalogs are an important first step, and these should be made as attractive as possible. The most effective method of approach, however, can be achieved by including the problem of informing students concerning conditions and opportunities in school and in society as a regular part of the instructional program. This means the assignment of regular program time and of regular instructional service for this purpose. After all, school time is devoted to informing children about the history of ancient and modern times, the geography of foreign countries, and many other matters of far less import than the problems that confront them in planning and choosing their educational career.

In many schools where a counseling service is provided, attempts are made during the interview to provide the information children need in developing their educational plans. Such oral instruction is often supplemented by printed and mimeographed statements to be studied by the student and his parents. All this is a step in the right direction, but dependence solely on individual instruction is extremely wasteful. No one would seriously propose to teach algebra or any other school subject entirely through individual instruction, in view of the established success already achieved through group instruction. Group methods are as reasonable, efficient, and economical in the study of problems of educational planning as they are in mathematics or any other subject. The problems that are common to the majority of students may be dealt with through group instruction, thus freeing the interview for the problems peculiar to each individual.

The broadcasting of information through the press, the radio, or other methods has justified its existence by the measure of economic returns, but 'shotgun methods' of this type are far too crude for use in the public schools. No educational or occupational opportunities are good or desirable *in general*; they are desirable only if they are in harmony with the interests, abilities, and desires of the *individual*. When the discussion of educational opportunities takes place in the regular classroom under the eye of a trained counselor who studies

the individual differences of his pupils, it can be more effective than any system of general broadcasting. It has been found repeatedly that the 'broadcasting' method frequently results in as much misinformation as in correct information, and it often requires considerable time on the part of counselors to correct mistaken ideas that need never have been formed had a different method been used.

In planning suitable educational activities within a particular school unit, each student should have the opportunity of becoming well informed concerning the nature of every subject and student activity within the curriculum and its educational and occupational implications, in order that he may intelligently formulate both immediate and long-term plans in the light of his interests, abilities, and needs. In some schools the courses are definitely set in advance by the program. In other schools, the nature of the content and activities of each subject will be coöperatively determined by students and teachers. The interpretation of the school program should make clear the basis of organization of instruction. This is not a task that can be performed once for all, since each new experience, when properly evaluated, may cause a shift in perspective and eventuate in desirable changes in plans for subsequent experiences. Students whose interests are narrowly centered need the opportunity for broadening their vision by interesting and worthwhile experiences in order that they may achieve good proportion in the planning of their educational structures. Education in the future will be a far different experience when thousands of trained teacher-counselors have labored to assist each young person to make the most of all of the advantages that the community provides for him.

One of the major guidance problems of students in the eleventh and twelfth grades should be that of becoming informed concerning educational and occupational opportunities that lie beyond the years of the senior high school. Too often the choice of a higher institution is based upon geographical location, personal friendships, or popular opinion rather than upon the actual facts regarding student life, living facilities, educational resources, quality of the instructional staff, the advantages or disadvantages of coëducation, and the extent to which the institution may contribute to the individual plans and programs of the students. These problems need to be introduced by means of class discussions, and pupils should be encouraged to investigate these problems just as they would investigate the subject of a debate or the facts in any problem of the social studies.

A survey of guidance practices in 336 secondary schools throughout the country, reported by Koos and Kefauver¹ in 1932, showed that a course in occupations was offered in slightly more than one-third of all schools canvassed. Sixty-five percent of the junior high schools, 11.4 percent of senior high schools, and 36.5 percent of six-year schools reported having the course. The systematic use of talks on occupations ranged from 37.8 percent in the smallest schools to 72.0 percent in the largest schools. The percentage of schools without a program of systematic study of occupational opportunities reveals a serious lack of an important informational service for many students.

Several studies of the outcomes of such courses on occupations have yielded limited results. In one such study the investigators, Hedge and Hutson,² concluded that "the few coarse evaluations . . . help to make it clear that guidance is not performed in a day or a few months." They recommend that a positive program of guidance designed to achieve the most refined adjustment of the individual to the opportunities within the schools and to the opportunities of life work demands that guidance be thought of as a function to be carried on coördinately with the development function.

Hand, in his appraisal of the occupations or life-career course in two senior high schools concluded:³

It may safely be said that the findings of the present study yield unequivocal indications of need on the part of all students, both life-career and non-life-career, for the important types of guidance services which the life-career course is presumably designed to provide. It could not be seriously urged that the students who coöperated in the investigation were at all adequately informed of occupational conditions and other related facts. They were inadequately informed of the false claims advanced by phrenologists, physiognomists, character analysts, and the like. Nothing approximating a satisfactory grasp of the various items of educational information discussed in this volume was evidenced by either group. Neither the life-career nor the non-life-career students had typically formulated to any satisfactory degree the various types of plans which are more or less commonly regarded as necessary to the most intelligent utilization of the opportunities for training afforded by high school.

¹ Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver. *Guidance in Secondary Schools*. Pp. 71-72, 144. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1932)

² J. W. Hedge and P. W. Hutson. "A technique for evaluating guidance activities." *School Review*, 39: 1931, 508-519.

³ Harold C. Hand. *An Appraisal of the Occupations or Life-Career Course*. P. 68. (Published by the author, Palo Alto, California, 1934)

There was little evidence that students had made choices and decisions for reasons which would be satisfactory to guidance workers.

All these observations suggest that a far more effective guidance service should be provided. Numerous carefully controlled experiments must undoubtedly be undertaken to discover what techniques are effective and to determine the conditions under which each of the more promising procedures thus revealed is most fruitful of the results desired by guidance workers. Clearly, if the evidence of the present study be accepted, it is apparent that secondary-school students need not less but more guidance service.

A study of the outcomes of the occupations course reported by Lincoln¹ in 1933, showed statistically significant differences between control groups and those with instruction once a week and five times a week, indicating definite achievement that tended to increase with the amount of instruction afforded.

The trend in all of these studies might be interpreted as suggesting the need for more continuous study of occupational opportunities rather than concentration at one level. Occupational plans cannot be formulated once for all. They need to grow with the growing personality and the changing environment. This aspect of guidance, like every other, must be a process and not an event, involving continuous self-appraisal and the study of shifting occupational patterns.

4. The Effect of Increased Enrollments in Secondary Schools and Colleges

The rapid increase since about 1890 in the percentage of youths of secondary-school age who remain in the high school and continue their training in junior college or four-year college has increased the pupil-teacher ratio in most institutions to the point where almost any educational service through individual contacts alone has become no longer feasible. This increase in the pupil-teacher ratio has been reflected in the pupil-counselor ratio in those schools with a special guidance personnel. F. C. Rosecrance, in his survey of guidance in large city school systems, found a median pupil-counselor ratio of one counselor to 1,375 pupils in junior high schools and 1,475 pupils in senior high schools. Obviously, guidance workers could accomplish little or nothing in the way of effective guidance through individual contacts with these numbers of pupils. Rosecrance found that the stu-

¹ Mildred E. Lincoln. "Measuring outcomes of the occupations course." *Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 12: Dec., 1933, 36-39.

dents in the typical junior high school participated in group guidance both in the home-room period and in a guidance course; the former sometimes occurred daily for brief periods; the latter met for a full period either daily for one term or once or twice a week throughout the three-year period. In the high school the student generally participated in a carefully worked out orientation program conducted by the home-room adviser or grade counselor.¹

As explained elsewhere in this volume, the recognized advantages of having one teacher-counselor working with a feasible number of students in both group and individual contacts is causing in many schools shifts in the organization of the guidance program that reduce the excessive pupil-counselor ratio without increase in cost. Such changes are achieved through curricular shifts or reorganization and involve recognition of what we now call 'group guidance' as a part of the instructional program. They require, of course, the careful selection and training of members of the teaching staff to perform guidance services and the choice, as new workers are added, of those with adequate guidance training. The Providence system of selecting and training teachers for grade-counselors is an illustration of how this can be done.²

5. The Need for Developing Self-Directive Skill

The rapidity of change that characterizes our present social order creates ever new and perplexing problems. This condition necessitates skill in problem-solving for the person who remains well adjusted. Guidance of the type that helps to develop this skill, rather than that which offers ready-made decisions, is directed toward the development of attitudes, understandings, thought processes, and social behavior on the part of students that can often best be initiated through group study and discussion wherein the consideration of personal problems is objectively treated.

Well-directed group study of common human problems appropriate at various ages helps to develop perspective and wholesome objectivity. Morbidity is likely to result from thinking that one's own problems of living are unique and that they set one apart from the rest of one's

¹ F. C. Rosecrance. "Organization and Administration of Guidance and Personnel Services in Large City School Systems." (Doctoral Dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1936)

² Richard D. Allen. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. Pp. 150-155, 278-286. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1934)

fellow beings. Group study of general problems of personal and social adjustment helps the individual to develop perspective as to his own problems and often relieves much of the emotional tension and worry that accompany frustration, unresolved conflicts, and blind groping for satisfactory solutions of difficulties.

The scientific attitude and method which have been applied so successfully to the problems of our material existence are essential for effective adjustment in the civilization which they have created. One of the basic outcomes of group guidance should be the habit of approaching the study of personal problems of living with the objective, impersonal attitude and the truth seeking methods of the scientist. Understanding and practice are necessary for the achievement of these skills.¹

Group guidance may also be utilized by the skillful teacher-counselor to develop wholesome and helpful awareness of unrecognized needs and problems as well as to develop skill in solving recognized problems. The word 'problem' as used here does not imply a necessary difficulty or maladjustment. We might define a problem approach as the anticipation of imminent or future adjustments for the purpose of studying them and determining the most desirable types of adjustment rather than facing each new experience with the necessity of reacting without thought or planning.

To be of practical help to students in the effective solution of their own problems, group study should eventuate in the individual applications of findings and of points of view. Some of these individual applications can be guided through the group activities and the use of suitable instructional materials. Others will call for counseling that can carry forward the mutual study by counselor and student of aspects of problems peculiar to the individual.

6. The Need for Practice in Meeting and Solving Vital Problems in Realistic Situations

The best preparation for living in the future is effective living in the present. The modern school affords students a great variety of opportunities through group activities to come to grips with live problems of living, of getting along with people. These real situations offer the best testing ground for the application of problem-solving and self-directive techniques. Both classroom and student activities

¹ M. E. Bennett. "The adjustive phase of guidance." *Occupations*, 12: March, 1934, Sec. 2, 48-57.

should be planned with a view to affording this practice. Some of the most effective guidance can be performed through the medium of these natural learning situations. The group guidance class, however, may also utilize these situations in very realistic ways by affording the opportunity for analyzing and studying the problems of adjustment involved in effective group participation. Perspective and objectivity are often more easily achieved outside the pressure of immediate environmental demands for reaction, and when the problems for study are real problems of students, there is no lack of interest.

7. The Value of Extended Observation of Students in Natural Situations as a Means of Understanding Their Needs

Individual contacts in the interview are too limited in time and circumstances to allow for the observations necessary really to know the students who are being guided. The informal, democratically organized class and other student activities give the opportunity, over a longer period of time and in a variety of situations, to see the individual in action. Only thus can there be sufficient opportunity to observe evidences of assets and liabilities that the guidance worker must understand in order to perform the guidance service intelligently.

III. THE OBJECTIVES OF GUIDANCE THROUGH GROUP ACTIVITIES

In light of the foregoing discussion we may summarize these objectives briefly as follows:

1. Aiding Students to Develop Self-Direction

1. Growing awareness of problems of life adjustment and personality development.

2. Experience in problem-solving with respect to issues of both immediate and future concern involving choices, adjustments, and regimen of living.

3. Self-appraisal of abilities, interests, and needs for wholesome development and adjustment.

4. Investigation of worthwhile opportunities for learning experiences.

5. The formulation of goals and the projection of plans for the achieving of these goals.

6. Engaging in guided learning experiences of varied types necessary to achieve guidance objectives.

7. Evaluating the outcomes of varied experiences as a means of developing standards of value and a growing life philosophy.

2. Laying the Foundations for Effective Counseling

With perspective and background developed through group study of common problems, the time of the interview can be devoted to the consideration of problems peculiar to the individual and to the application of general understandings and sound techniques to mutual thinking about these problems. When the counselor is in charge of the group study, the interview can start with a background of mutual understandings and build upon these rather than start wastefully at the beginning and cover similar ground for every student. This point of view is further developed in Chapter IV, "Counseling with Students."

3. Providing Natural Situations in Which Guidance Workers May Secure Significant Personal Data

It is generally recognized that helpful and significant personnel records must be cumulative over a sufficient period of time to show trends of growth, and that they should contain anecdotal records of experiences, behavior, attitudes, and achievements as well as test data and scholarship records. All teachers working with a student should, of course, contribute to these records, but a teacher-counselor is in a particularly strategic position to observe significant reactions in group guidance activities because of their very nature, and also is in vital need of the understandings derived from such observations in order to render a helpful guidance service.

The group guidance class affords one of the best opportunities to secure dependable test and other objective data, since, if it is properly organized and conducted, the prevailing spirit will be one of mutual confidence and helpfulness. Students will recognize that tests and personality inventories may contribute to their own self-knowledge and consequently will have no motive for purposeful falsification of responses or lack of effort.

IV. THE ORGANIZATION OF GROUP GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

1. General Aspects

No one pattern of organization for group guidance activities can be assumed to be most desirable. The total organization of the school naturally conditions each aspect of the total program. The size of the student body and the training and interests of the administrative

and teaching staff are also important factors in determining who shall perform various guidance services.¹

2. Prevailing Forms of Organization

a. The Home Room. This was one of the earliest forms of organization in junior and senior high schools for bringing group guidance activities into the educational program; it is still one of the most widely prevailing types. It has the advantage of bringing all teachers in a school into active participation in the guidance program and allows for a sufficiently small pupil-teacher ratio to make individualization of the program feasible. Being confronted with the demands of a home-room situation has without doubt caused many teachers to become more child-minded and resulted in more effective teaching throughout the school program. However, the limited time usually assigned to home-room activities, their extensive use for administrative and routine matters, and the lack of interest and training on the part of many teachers have all militated against its effectiveness. Owing to inadequate leadership the home-room program in a school frequently lacks continuity and fails to come to grips with the really vital problems of students. Busy teachers also encounter difficulty in finding time for the counseling that naturally grows out of the group activities, or the organization of the school may be such that the counseling function is not an expected part of the home-room teacher's functions. Either of these conditions deprives the group work of one important source of its vitality.

Home rooms may have an important part to play as units in the democratic organization of the school life, depending in part upon the plan of organization of the school, but many of the subtle and technical aspects of guidance are not likely to be cared for adequately by home-room teachers.

b. Special Classes in Group Guidance. This type of organization usually involves regularly scheduled classes taught by the adviser or counselor of the students. It may require a few minutes less of mathematics, or social studies, or English instruction in order to provide time in the schedule for perhaps two periods a week of group guidance throughout the secondary-school period. It need involve no increase

¹ For a fuller discussion of this topic see Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand. *Group Guidance in High School*. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1938)

in expense. It has the advantage of being carried by teachers or counselors who are presumably interested in the work and who have the necessary training or are securing such training. A disadvantage might easily develop if the activity became academic and stereotyped or segregated from live relationships with the other aspects of the educational program or if it caused the rest of the school staff to assume less responsibility for the guidance of youth. Hence, these guidance workers should maintain active coöperation with students, other teachers, administrators, parents, and community agencies that touch the lives of youths. They should have time for counseling as well as for group guidance instruction.

In the junior college or four-year college, group guidance is most likely to be found in orientation courses usually offered or required during the first semester or year of college. These will be considered in Chapter VI, "Orientation of New Students."

c. *The Core Curriculum.* In schools where the learning experiences of students are organized around their meaningful life problems and subject areas are related to these problems, the core teacher frequently serves as the adviser for her group, utilizing a team of other teachers and specialists in the program. The core teacher is often called the 'teacher-counselor.' Under this plan, various guidance problems or projects may become an integral part of a unit or may constitute valid units in themselves. This form of organization is likely to insure active coöperation of a team of workers and thus prevent the guidance from becoming an isolated fragment in the school program. The activity approach favors the development and maintenance of a live, vital attack on guidance problems. The chief dangers may arise in the necessity of utilizing for teacher-counselors many teachers who may be uninterested or untrained. Where adequately trained teacher-counselors can be utilized, an excellent opportunity is afforded to draw upon resources in all fields of the curriculum to enrich the study of guidance problems. The number of students per teacher-counselor may be small enough to allow for adequate individualization and counseling.

Examples of the core curriculum in the junior college or the four-year college are to be found in survey courses that have been introduced in increasing numbers in recent years. Many of these courses are focused upon the problem of orienting the student in subject fields or problems of citizenship, but many deal with varied aspects and problems of living. Examples of the latter approach are to be found

in the General College at the University of Minnesota. In the Junior College at Pasadena, California, there is an Orientation Course of the group guidance type in addition to survey courses.

d. Regular Subject Classes. There are many ways in which regular subject teachers may stress the implications of their subjects for guidance and provide trial activities that may arouse and develop interests of students. In proportion as subject teachers are able to point out the occupational implications of their subjects, pupils will develop greater interest in the subjects. Oral or written projects in the study of occupations that are related to the subject of instruction may be carried on. Better still, it is frequently possible to organize subject instruction in a series of actual work-samples or projects in which the work is similar to that performed by workers in various occupations. In the English class, for example, there may be the reporter, the proofreader, the short-story writer, the poet, the commentator or columnist, the editor, the feature writer, the correspondent who conducts a special department, the advertiser, the cartoonist, the illustrator, and so on. The implications of subjects for recreational and social civic activities and for self-discovery and self-development of varied sorts need also to be made clear.

In proportion as the activity methods of the elementary school are carried over into the secondary-school years, every subject, whether academic or practical in its nature, is destined to become a more effective test of the interests and abilities of students. It is also possible for subject teachers to point out the many ways in which interests and abilities, once discovered, may be developed continuously through experiences both in and out of school until they may have a marketable value in the life of the community. This improving of the relations between occupations and the subject matter of the curriculum is a challenging problem for any secondary-school faculty. It has been done very effectively in the senior high school of Champaign, Illinois.

e. School Assemblies. Assemblies can often be used to advantage to supplement the more intensive guidance program. Lectures, student programs, including dramatics, pertinent radio talks, and motion pictures, are among the possibilities. The assembly may be used economically for dispensing certain types of information needed by all students, but the limitations of this 'shotgun' method for sound guidance, already noted, should be considered carefully in this connection.

f. Conferences. Many high schools and colleges have incorporated

as a regular part of their guidance program projects usually known as the "Occupational Conference" and the "College Conference."¹ The following procedures are frequently used in the Occupational Conference.

1. A ballot is provided containing the names of occupations commonly found among the choices of students of the school and in the follow-up studies of graduates. Every pupil indicates a first, second, and third choice of occupational interest. The results are summarized in order to know the number of pupils who are interested in each of the occupations listed.

2. Prominent local speakers are secured in each occupation in which there are a sufficient number, say, twenty or more, of students interested. If more than forty students are scheduled for a meeting, either a larger room is provided, or preferably, several other speakers on the same subject are secured in order to facilitate questions and discussions during the meeting.

3. The principal or superintendent invites the speakers to a luncheon, explains the project, provides general outlines, and urges each speaker, if possible, to prepare a written address, whether he uses it or not in his speech.

4. On the day for the conference, school is dismissed during certain periods and pupils reassemble according to previously expressed choices. Home-room teachers are assigned to preside and introduce the speakers. Senior stenographic students are assigned to note questions and answers. The speaker takes from twenty to thirty minutes, after which an equal amount of time is devoted to questions and answers.

5. Following the meetings, reports from the English classes are encouraged as well as occupational notebooks prepared by students for their own use. Copies of each speaker's address and of the questions and answers are made, and several bound volumes result that are usually presented to the library. This project provides an unusually effective and economical method of bringing together the students and successful persons engaged in the occupations in which students are interested. Usually one project of this type each term is not too much.

The Occupational Conference needs to be controlled carefully since there are possibilities of undesirable practices and outcomes. The following suggestions on using vocational speakers have been selected from a list prepared by the National Occupational Conference:²

1. Select a qualified worker to meet with and address the group. Explain to him that you wish a presentation of his field as a *vocation*, that

¹ These are described in detail in R. D. Allen, F. J. Stewart, and L. J. Schloerb. *Common Problems in Group Guidance*. Pp. 118-128. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1933)

² National Occupational Conference, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City. (Mimeographed)

you are not particularly interested in a description of industrial processes except where this description is necessary to accomplish the major purpose of the conference.

2. Furnish each speaker with a suggested outline. (Questions on vocational conditions such as can be supplied by the counselor or secured from any textbook on vocations.)

3. Ask each speaker to distinguish between facts and his own opinions.

4. Limit the speaker to fifteen, twenty, or thirty minutes and allow an equal period of time for questions.

5. Caution the speaker that you wish him neither to over-sell nor under-sell his field but to present it as objectively and impersonally as possible.

6. Wherever possible have two or three speakers to discuss each occupation. They may appear several weeks apart if desirable. This will tend to minimize the danger of prejudiced presentations.

The College Conference is similar to the Occupational Conference, in that it provides an opportunity for students to meet representatives or alumni of colleges in which they are interested, in order that pupils may have more exact information concerning the facilities, program, and student life in the colleges. The fact that students designate in advance the colleges in which they are most interested helps to prevent any attempt to convert the project into an advertising campaign for particular institutions. The conference needs to be controlled carefully, however, to avoid such abuses.

g. Clubs and Other Cohesive Groups. Informal groups, usually organized around some common interest, afford their leaders excellent opportunities for group guidance in natural and well-motivated situations. School clubs formed to encourage special interests or hobbies of students provide valuable trial experiences for both vocational and avocational abilities and interests when under skilled leadership. Informal study and discussion groups, such as those organized under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., have resulted in the development of excellent techniques for creative group thinking on personal and social problems of various types. Many of the techniques developed in these cohesive groups can be utilized with profit in the group guidance class. Space does not permit of their discussion here but references to descriptions are included in the selected bibliography at the end of this chapter.

V. SUGGESTED METHODS AND MATERIALS IN GROUP GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

1. An Informal, Democratic Atmosphere

A spirit of mutual coöperation and friendliness should prevail in the group guidance class. The teacher or leader should never assume the rôle of an unfriendly dictator who imposes tasks. The program of activities should grow out of democratic, teacher-pupil purposing and planning and should center around student needs and interests. The teacher-counselor needs to anticipate many student needs and continuously guide the group toward the discovery and awareness of new problems and interests, but without artificially forcing their consideration.

It is usually desirable to organize a class with elected officers responsible for certain functions, and with committees, both standing and special, for various purposes. Simple regulations for the conduct of group activity are generally helpful for stimulating student initiative and responsibility and for maintaining order and system. It is not necessary for the instructor to relinquish his chairmanship completely in order to have a democratic organization. The value of student interest and effort stimulated through responsibility needs constantly to be checked against the time that is wasted through immature student leadership. After all, the spirit of democratic coöperation is more important than any specific procedure.

2. The Importance of a Problem-Solving Approach

An experimental, objective attitude is very important in approaching the study of problems involved in group guidance. There are no ready-made answers to life's problems and one of the most important guidance objectives is that of helping students increasingly to develop skill in attacking and solving their own problems in sound ways. Preaching or a formal, study-recitation method are both valueless for this purpose.

The following steps are suggested as important in problem-solving:

1. Sensing needs and formulating problems of choices and adjustments in school and elsewhere
2. Learning where or how needed information or experience may be secured and acquiring the understanding and skill needed to meet immediate problems
3. Formulating possible solutions suggested by available facts

4. Selecting from these the most probable solution for testing
5. Checking the effectiveness of the proposed solution
6. Accepting, rejecting, or modifying the solution on the basis of sound evidence

3. A Variety of Techniques Suggested

Any method may become a useless device unless it is used intelligently as a means of attaining some desired end. Several methods are suggested here, partly for the purpose of emphasizing the desirability of a variety of approaches and techniques. Only one, the case conference, is described, since this is less well known than those more commonly used in most class groups, and is particularly applicable to some of the problems of human relations that occupy an important place in the group-guidance program.

Informal group discussions under planned leadership form an important part of any class program. It is especially important in the group-guidance work that problems for discussion should be clearly formulated and that there should be active participation of the entire class in creative group thinking. With a new group there is likely to be much expression of unfounded beliefs, opinions, and prejudices, without reference to available facts and tested human experience. The skillful teacher-counselor can soon lead a group toward the more objective attitude of searching for the significant factors and the available facts to be considered rather than being concerned with what they think they believe and merely rearranging their prejudices. When once this attitude has been established, there are variations in procedure that can contribute to the progress of the group and give zest through new experiences. Panels, forums, committee and individual reports, excursions, lectures or talks, and informal dramatics are a few of the possibilities. Committee work and reports need to be organized carefully with delegated responsibilities if they are to function helpfully.

The question-box, in which unsigned questions and problems may be placed for discussion, is a valuable device in this field. Individuals can thus have the benefit of impersonal class discussion of their perplexities and problems without the embarrassment of personal reference. An objective, casual attitude on the part of a well-adjusted teacher-counselor who never displays shock or disapproval and has a happy sense of humor can do much to overcome undue student embarrassment and build an *esprit de corps* that will tend to break down undesirable reticence.

Group investigations and discussions should almost always even-

tuate in individual activities designed to apply group learnings to individual problems. A variety of inventories, informal questionnaires, and other devices that guide the student's thinking are helpful at this point, and the interview should be utilized freely for this purpose.¹

In dealing with the problems of personal and social relations the case-conference method seems especially applicable. The origin of the method goes back to the theory of Herbert Spencer that whenever a problem of personal and social relations was considered by a sufficiently wide circle of disinterested observers and time was provided for the full discussion of the issues involved, a social judgment would result. Extreme attitudes, opinions, or solutions of a few individuals are modified or eliminated in the general discussion, and the final conclusions are founded upon justice to the individual and the greatest good to the greatest number. In the average classroom under a trained teacher-counselor, it is possible to obtain these conditions that Spencer believed to be necessary in the socializing of individual experience and thinking. Thus it is possible to seek out the common social problems of young people and bring them into the classroom to be studied under the influence of social intelligence, group thinking, and impartial points of view.

When this is done, five steps appear to follow each other logically in the process.

If the problem has been stated in the concrete terms of an actual case involving personal and social relations, the first step is for each pupil to review his own experience in similar situations. Is this a common problem? Where before have I met this problem or one like it? What did I do? How did it work? Where have I observed other people and their methods of meeting similar problems? In other words, each individual attempts to summarize his own past experience, observation, and thinking and to apply them in the current problem or situation.

The second step in the group thinking involves directing the attention of pupils away from the immediate advantages to be gained by the person or persons involved in the case, and toward the more remote or final advantages, away from the temporary and toward the permanent values to be obtained by a proper solution.

The third step implies the use of what has sometimes been called

¹ This discussion of methods has been adapted in part from Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand, *Group Guidance in High School*, a manual to accompany the Bennett-Hand Group Guidance Series. (McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1938.) A more extended discussion is included in this reference.

'social intelligence,' or 'social thinking.' It is concerned more with the effect of the proposed solution upon persons other than the individual most immediately concerned. This requires imagination, sympathy, putting oneself in another's place, the application of the Golden Rule, and in its highest sense, considering another's welfare as equal, if not superior, to one's own welfare.

The fourth step involves the consideration of possible exceptions, of so-called 'mitigating circumstances,' that might make a course of action advisable. After all, if one's child is starving or the welfare of the country or community is at stake, compromises sometimes have to be made with general principles. We live in a practical world and must be realistic. Is this an occasion in which a compromise appears necessary or desirable? All these problems deserve consideration; they are the problems that most nearly involve the indefinite something frequently called 'character.'

Finally, when these steps have been taken, a fifth step, that of summarizing, is frequently of value to see what generalizations are possible whereby the thinking in this problem may be applied in other similar situations. This is a difficult procedure and often requires the assistance, tact, and discretion of an experienced teacher-counselor. It is an important step, however, for it involves formulating principles upon which young people will act when confronted with important choices. The successful solution of these problems requires not only instruction in general principles, such as is offered through ethical teaching, but also considerable actual practice in thinking through the more common and typical problems met in daily living. No one would presume that algebra could be taught without practice in the various operations and skills. The parallel is very close. It is unreasonable to expect young people to acquire skill in solving problems of personal and social relationships unless practice has been provided through which they may become skillful in the process. Experience in social thinking should be one of the most important contributions of the school to the problems of successful living.¹

4. A Variety of Materials of Instruction Suggested

a. Tests and Inventories. The advantages of incorporating the testing program in the group guidance activity have been cited. The

¹ For fuller discussion of the case conference method, see R. D. Allen. *Case Conference Problems in Group Guidance*. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1933. 155 pp.)

data from many of the tests can be used directly with the students as aids in self-appraisal if proper safeguards as to interpretations are introduced. Careful explanations of the purpose, nature, and meaning of the tests should precede any distribution of test results. Test data should, of course, never be used as a sole basis of a self-appraisal project.¹

More helpful, oftentimes, than standardized tests to guide thinking with respect to self-appraisal are informal inventories of plans, attitudes, knowledge, and judgments pertaining to problems of guidance. Such inventories can guide the student in collecting and recording pertinent data and in interpreting them with respect to the projection of plans and the choice of new experiences.²

b. Informal Guides to Securing and Using Information. Much of the information needed in solving problems must be drawn from different subject fields, but some of it cannot be found in books and must be secured in the world of people and things. Students can be given much help in locating, collecting, and interpreting this current information by means of informal outlines and guides. It is important that such guides be carefully planned to avoid foisting on students mere busy work that will lead to no significant information or helpful thinking about real problems.³

When current data collected by students under guidance are pooled and continuously revised, significant information can be made available to succeeding classes.

c. School and College Bulletins. These are obvious sources of information helpful to new students in becoming oriented in new situations and in keeping informed about current school opportunities. Such materials are also essential in investigating the relative advantages of various new schools when a choice and shift is imminent.

d. Pertinent Books and Reference Materials. Such materials in-

¹ For further treatment of this topic, see R. D. Allen. *Self-Measurement Projects in Group Guidance*. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1934. 270 pp.)

² The Kefauver-Hand Guidance Tests and Inventories, published by the World Book Company, 1937, are of this type. These include Educational Guidance Test, Health Guidance Test, Student-Judgment Guidance Test, Inventory of Student Plans, and Inventory of Student Self-Ratings.

³ A variety of such devices is suggested in Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand, *Group Guidance in High School*, a manual to accompany the Bennett-Hand Group Guidance Series. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1938)

clude not only those bearing directly on guidance problems, but also data from various subject fields needed for objective consideration of problems. Immature students require help in using these varied materials, but can secure excellent training in research techniques by using them.

In recent years there has been a great increase in both the number and the quality of books and monographs affording occupational information. No secondary school should be without a first-class library of this sort. In recent years the National Occupational Conference and the United States Office of Education have issued excellent monographs concerning numerous occupations. Several private publishers have also contributed notable series of occupational monographs edited by experts in the field of educational and vocational guidance. The *Occupational Index*, published by the National Occupational Conference, provides current sources of information regarding occupations. With all of these resources, which can be readily made available in every school, there should be no excuse for a lack of proper occupational information. Even if the school budget does not provide adequate funds for such a library, parent-teacher associations, civic clubs, or class gifts could soon make good the deficiency.

Even with the best library, however, to insure its proper use by students there should be an organized program sponsored by the faculty. If there is a group-guidance course in the school, the occupations library will be constantly used for reference. Even without such a course, there is much that could be done by each subject teacher to encourage reading in the fields of occupations that are related to subjects of the curriculum. There are already several excellent classifications of occupations, arranged according to the subjects of the curriculum to which they are most closely related. The occupations manual published by the Guidance Department of Cincinnati is one of the best examples of this type.

e. Motion-Picture Films and Radio Talks. In addition to the motion-picture films especially prepared for vocational guidance purposes or especially suited to give occupational information, there are many others that portray human situations and characters that can be utilized very effectively in the discussion of personal and social problems. Excerpts from some of the older films are now being selected for this purpose and can be used in schools with the necessary projection and sound equipment. Suitable current films can be utilized by the

alert instructor as a means of setting the stage in an interesting manner for group thinking about significant human relationships.¹

Radio talks on occupations and vocational guidance, and current talks on varied conditions and problems of living add flavor, intensify interest, and contribute helpful information.

f. Records of Students Who Have Left School. High schools receive scholastic reports of their former students, in order that they may check on their procedures for certification. These may assist in estimating the difficulty of courses in various institutions, the chances of success of their students in those institutions, and the quality of preparation offered for various institutions. There has been a conspicuous lack, however, of any thoroughgoing studies designed for the purpose of helping future graduates to benefit by the experience of past graduates. The most effective method of securing such information for the use of counselors and students is through the so-called 'follow-up' studies that have been carried on by many of the more progressive school departments. Usually these studies are made at one-, three-, and five-year intervals. Ten-year follow-up studies have been published in Boston and Providence.² The procedure involves:

1. Preparing pupils for their own follow-up studies by having them study in the group-guidance course the follow-up studies of previous graduating classes from the school. In this way they are prepared for their questionnaires when they arrive and will have confidence in the way in which the information they furnish is to be used.

2. At the end of one, three, and five years after graduation, questionnaires are sent out, usually in connection with plans for class reunions. A second letter, sometimes a third, and a telephone campaign are frequently necessary to secure a sufficiently high percentage of returns.

3. Questionnaires are summarized by the counselor in a form that makes it possible to construct a city-wide summary and compare results with those of other schools and school systems.

4. The general summary is presented to graduates at their one-, three-, and five-year reunions and is used with oncoming classes in the group-guidance

¹ Two comprehensive indexes of visual education materials are *Educational Films*, published by H. W. Wilson Company, New York, and *1000-and-1 Best Films*, published by Educational Screen, Chicago, Illinois. A series of sound films entitled *Secrets of Success*, composed of excerpts from motion pictures portraying aspects of significant human problems, is in process of development. This series should supply helpful materials for use in group guidance activities.

² For details, see various issues of the magazine *Occupations* and also Volumes I and IV of the Inor Group Guidance Series.

course, in order that they may know and anticipate some of the problems of adjustment in the years immediately after their own graduation.

Such facts as the necessity for further training in evening schools, or special vocational classes, the necessity of selecting occupational opportunities with lower incomes but better ultimate advantages, suggestions as to recreational activities, and as to personal characteristics important for satisfactory living, and the graduates' estimates of the subjects that have proved most useful to them in adjusting themselves to conditions beyond the school, all are matters of special interest. The group-guidance programs of many schools provide for the consideration of a one-year-after study in the group-guidance curriculum of the tenth grade, a three-year study in the eleventh grade, and a five-year study in the twelfth grade. It is important that every secondary school should provide information for its students in terms of the experiences of its own graduates rather than the experience of graduates of other schools in different localities, and possibly of different types. Occupational and educational information, to be effective, must be specific and definite, not a mass of hazy or glittering generalities.

VI. SCOPE OF THE FIELD OF GROUP GUIDANCE

The fact has been emphasized that group-guidance activities must be centered in the actual problems and perplexities of students both in adjusting to the present and in planning for the future. The field is limited only by the boundaries and ramifications of these problems among the groups of students involved in the program. The following list of major areas suggests the scope of the field:

1. Orientation in new school situations.
2. Planning a well-balanced program of learning experiences.
3. Improving learning techniques — study methods, use of the library, and other school facilities, social and athletic skills.
4. Improving personal adjustments and social relationships.
5. Self-appraisal and wholesome self-development.
6. Formulating suitable life goals and projecting well-balanced life plans.
7. Choosing activities and evaluating experiences directed toward the achievement of tentative goals.
8. Developing a growing system of values or life philosophy.

Problems like these are frequently developed as integral parts of a well-organized functioning core or social-studies course.

VII. VALUES INHERENT IN GROUP-GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

One of the most important values of group-guidance activities lies in the fact that they provide continuity of contacts between the teacher-counselor and his students for an appreciable period of time. Without the group activities, these contacts would be limited to scheduled or occasional interviews, and it would be impossible for a counselor really to know the students with whom he was attempting to counsel.

Without a program of group activities, guidance would be largely remedial, repairing the machine after the damage had been done. It is only through group guidance that it is possible to select the problems with which all pupils are sure to be confronted, and to prepare pupils *in advance* with the information and the procedures necessary for a wise solution of the problems when they occur.

Finally, every group-guidance activity is an open invitation for pupils to come to the teacher-counselor for assistance with their individual problems. When pupils bring their own problems to the counselor, an attitude of 'guidance readiness' is assured. The group activities help them to develop awareness of the nature of their problems and to become interested in solving them.

There is need for evaluating the actual outcomes of all phases of the guidance service, including group guidance. Some evaluations of one phase of group guidance, the occupations course, have been summarized in this chapter; some evaluations of orientation are reported in Chapter VI. Critical studies of outcomes will point the way to needed changes and developments in these and other techniques of guidance.

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CHAPTER VI

THE ORIENTATION OF STUDENTS IN EDUCATIONAL
INSTITUTIONS

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Orientation,¹ like all other aspects of guidance, is a process, not an event. Our concept of personality development as a continuous interaction between a growing individual and his ever-changing environment, material and social, precludes the possibility of effecting any important life adjustments merely by means of a discrete series of events directed narrowly toward the induction of students into a new school environment. An adequate orientation service is an integral part of the whole guidance program, just as the latter is an integral, functioning part of the entire school program.

However, in any new environment, an individual faces many perplexing choices and adjustments that, if inadequately made, may cause unhappiness and prevent satisfactory growth. The nature of the adjustment that is made depends not only upon the demands of the new situation but also upon the previous life adjustments of the neophyte and the resulting personality pattern he brings to the new environment. The new experiences may present a challenge for the examination of life values and the reorganization of his life pattern.

To a developing, democratic school the entrance of new students will also present a challenge for the reëvaluation and adjustment of the school program to bring it into harmony with the growth needs of its new members. Orientation thus presents a mutual problem of adjustment for the older and the newer personnel of the school.

It is obvious that the responsibility of an educational institution for the induction of new students cannot be discharged adequately by

¹ The term 'orientation' is restricted in this chapter to adjustments in new schools; in general use the term is not always thus limited. It is frequently applied to survey courses in the various fields of knowledge, but this type of orientation is not included within the scope of this chapter.

the dispensing of information about the school that was. The realities are the adjustment problems of the school and its members who are in a process of becoming. A significant orientation program must enable the participants to come to grips with these realities.

I. THE PURPOSES OF ORIENTATION

In the light of the foregoing considerations we may summarize the purposes of orientation in the five statements that follow:

1. *To guide the student in becoming acquainted with the new institution in order that he may adjust himself happily in the new environment through participating effectively in its life, and that he may utilize its opportunities for furthering his growth.*

If this goal is to be realized, the student must be alive to the history, tradition, and purposes of the school; he must be familiar with the physical plant and facilities; he must know what services are available to him from various members of the faculty. To be an intelligent citizen of the school democracy, he must understand the organization and activities of the student body, the responsibilities and privileges of citizenship, and acceptable ways of working and playing. He must be aware of the opportunities for worthwhile experiences through the curricular and extra-curricular offerings.

2. *To guide the student in a reconsideration of his goals and purposes in relation to increased self-knowledge, and in the perspective of his new opportunities for well-balanced growth.*

In a growing personality significant new experiences may open new vistas and cause shifts in life values and goals. Entrance into a new school environment is a favorable time to take stock of one's personality resources, both assets and liabilities, of one's developing trends of interests, of work and play habits, of immediate and more remote purposes and goals. Only in the light of such an inventory can one plan intelligently as to the best use of present opportunities.

3. *To guide the student toward a growing awareness of the wider social scene and of his place therein.*

Charles Horton Cooley, the sociologist, once wrote, "The central fact of all history is the gradual enlargement of social consciousness." This statement holds true of individual as well as social growth. Not only must the guidance worker see the whole individual in his total environment, but also the student must orient himself in the larger social order of which he is a part. The school can play an active part

in this process, helping the student, not only to live effectively within the school, but also to interpret and integrate his gradually widening out-of-school experiences. The increasing complexity of the modern world, and the consequent difficulty of seeing life whole, presents the school with a special challenge in this area. Wholesome life adjustments in the present as well as intelligent planning for, and living in, the future are dependent upon this broader social understanding and the integration of varied life experiences.

4. *To contribute to the development of increased skill in self-direction through improved skill in adjusting intelligently to the new environment and through experience in utilizing new opportunities.*

The changes that characterize our social setting create more or less perplexing problems. This condition necessitates skill in problem-solving for the person who is to remain well-adjusted. Facing and dealing with problems of adjustment in a new school should help to improve one's techniques of self-direction in other new situations if attention is directed to sound methods of problem-solving. These methods have been described in Chapter V.

Much practice in self-direction can be secured by students through the rechecking of previous school and life goals and the setting of new tentative goals where indicated, the mapping out of tentative school and life plans, and the evaluation of current life experiences.

5. *To provide opportunities for school officials (administrators, guidance workers, and other teachers) to become better acquainted with new students and more aware of their growth needs, in order that the school environment may be made more responsive to these needs.*

As stated earlier, orientation should be a mutual process of acquaintanceship and adjustment. An orientation program should provide opportunity for school officials and older students to acquire knowledge about the new students as well as for the latter and their parents to become informed about the new environment. Cumulative records from the previous school, informal questionnaires from parents and friendly conferences with them, tests and questionnaires from the new students, and group discussions and interviews may all contribute to this purpose. Such information as is secured should be checked continuously against school opportunities, organization, and practices to insure a flexible environment that may stimulate growth instead of warping personalities.

II. POINTS IN THE SCHOOL AT WHICH ORIENTATION IS PARTICULARLY NEEDED

1. The Transition from Home to Kindergarten or Elementary School

The shift from the smaller and relatively protected home environment to the larger circle of one's peers in kindergarten or elementary school involves a critical problem of adjustment for most children. The adjustment is likely to be especially difficult for the child who has been over-protected in the home, who is retarded in some aspect of his development (physical, mental, emotional, or social), or who has not yet learned to give and take in wholesome, shared living with parents, brothers and sisters, or other children. The child who has failed to achieve a satisfying status in the home may be fearful in exploring and discovering his new environment. All children need guidance in exploring their new world of people and things and in testing their powers therein. In helping the child to make this transition from home to school, the teacher may serve for a time as a parent surrogate, at the same time guiding him toward wholesome social consciousness of other children and aiding him in developing the physical and social skills important for successful participation in the group life.

Parental understanding and coöperation are especially important at this stage to prevent wide disparity between the demands of the home and the school on the child. Health examinations, when provided at entrance, may be utilized for helpful conferences with parents concerning child needs, as may also visits of parents at the time of entrance or registration. This is an especially good time to secure information from parents concerning the child's developmental history, and present adjustment and health status, since the incentive is mutual interest in wholesome growth rather than in the study of a maladjustment that may be difficult for the parent to face squarely. The following situation will illustrate the importance of parent-teacher coöperation.

John, who typifies numerous kindergarten children, had associated only with adults and an older child before entering kindergarten and had been the victim of too much adult attention. For several weeks he appeared oblivious of the other children, but continuously watched the teacher for signs of her attention, approval, or reproof. When playing with blocks, during rhythms, or in other activities, he would stop every few minutes to see whether the teacher was aware of what he was doing. Other children were merely annoyances who interfered with his activities or claimed some of the teacher's attention, which he desired solely for himself. Conferences with the mother revealed that she was

mistakenly proud of the fact that both this boy and an older daughter seemed satisfied with her companionship and expressed no desire for friends or playmates of their own age; also that she had warned John that he must always do exactly what the teacher wanted him to do. As the mother gained insight into the sources of John's difficulties and began to coöperate with the school program by manifesting great interest in his classmates instead of just in John and his teacher, marked improvement occurred in John's social adjustment. Before the end of the year he had seemingly caught up with the other children in his social growth. Without understanding of the home situation and without parent coöperation, the school would have been greatly handicapped in helping John to orient himself in his new environment.

The observation and recording of behavior patterns evidenced in the informal play and manipulative activities of the early school years are especially important for the revealing of basic personality trends, interests, and aptitudes. As the personality organization and environment become more complex in later years, significant tendencies are less easily detected without the background of earlier cumulative records of growth.

New orientation problems appear for many elementary-school children with the demand for the development and use of fundamental skills. Variations in the readiness and ability of children to acquire reading and other skills — combined with high percentages of failure in promotion, especially in the first grade, or the cumulation of difficulties and maladjustment on the part of children in the middle grades who have not acquired necessary skills — have led to the recognition of a need for systematic guidance of children concerning the acquisition of these skills. We are also beginning to recognize the importance of helping children in their orientation progressively at different levels in social and play skills as well as academic skills.

Informal group discussions about common, everyday problems of adjustment, if conducted in a casual, objective manner, may afford excellent guidance in facing and thinking through significant matters and help to prevent later difficulties. Casual, but carefully considered, conferences with individual pupils may also help at opportune times.

2. The End of the Elementary-School Period

Anticipation of entrance into the high school is frequently associated with anxiety (or even real fright) on the part of some children or their parents. Discussions with their teachers and with representatives of the new school about the nature of the adjustments to be made,

and enjoyable visits to the school itself to gain firsthand information and a sense of familiarity with the school life will help to allay such fears and to build realistic anticipations of the new opportunities. Orientation activities that include the parents of new students should also be directed toward the development of attitudes in the home conducive to preparation for wholesome adjustments in the wider environment where self-dependence, self-direction, and more complex social adjustment are required. Discussions with both parents and children of the problems of growing-up common at this age level, and simple, objective inventories by pupils of their status in this respect may help to reveal danger points for effective adjustment that can be studied with a view to preventing difficulties later on.

3. The Beginning of the Junior-High-School and Senior-High-School Periods

Many of the orientation problems at this stage are associated with the more complex physical and social environment of the usual secondary school, the variety of curricular and extracurricular offerings, the adjustment to many new teachers and fellow-pupils, the widened area of choices to be made, and the increased expectancy of self-dependence, personal responsibility, and active social coöperation in the life of the school. Undesirable personality trends and behavior patterns are likely then to become accentuated.

Added to these problems implicit in the school environment are those normally associated with the adolescent period of transition from childhood to adulthood. Some recent restatements of these problems are included in Chapter V. Grappling with these problems involves the thoughtful evaluation of the aims of pupils and the intelligent planning of school experiences to keep them in harmony with these aims.

The rapid increase in recent decades in the percentage of students of secondary-school age who remain in school and the resulting heterogeneity of the high-school population have challenged educators to meet the needs of all pupils. While the challenge has been accepted in theory, the need has not yet been met adequately in practice, especially for the non-academically inclined pupil. This is one of the most urgent problems of the school with reference to its program.

4. The Beginning of College and Technical-School Training Periods

Some choices and adjustments at these levels, as in the high school, need to be faced before actual entrance into the experience. The wise

choice of a college or other training institution is one such problem. Assuming this to have been done with a fair degree of forethought, what are some of the common adjustment problems of the new college student?

Frankwood Williams has said of the college freshmen: ¹

He rides into college on a sea of emotional problems — problems that are inherent in himself, problems that were not of himself, but that have been made a part of himself through the unfortunate activities of others; feelings of inferiority where, perhaps, inferiority does not exist or no longer exists; unhealthy modes of reaction to such feelings where, perhaps, there is some inferiority; feelings of guilt; unhealthy attachments to members of the family or to others; many confusions over matters of sex; problems growing out of efforts at emancipation from the family; healthy reactions misunderstood, and not well received, to unhealthy situations, thereby giving rise to a series of secondary problems; jealousy, unhealthy attitudes toward questions of authority, fears of various sorts.

None of these is clear; none appears frankly in the open for what it is so that he may come to grips with it. He is aware only of the gustiness of his emotions, of their untrustworthiness, their lack of predictability, frequently their lack of 'sense' when they defeat a reasoned course of action. The closest he can get to the real situation is its shadow, and this does not bring much success. Mostly he wrestles with phantoms in the dark.

A group of one hundred sophomores submitted lists containing not less than five nor more than ten problems that caused them definite emotional concern and that demanded their best intellectual efforts to solve. The following list is arranged according to relative position in individual series: ²

Vocation	Health	Day-dreaming
Inferiority	Sex	Religion
Personality	Will power	Friends
School work	Speech	Poor memory
Finances	Concentration	Fears
Too aggressive	Ethical code	Philosophy
Temper	Selfishness	Accepting conventions
Parents	Insubordination	Social graces
Self-confidence	Temperament	Hobbies
Self-consciousness	Too submissive	

¹ Frankwood E. Williams. "Mental hygiene and the college student" *Mental Hygiene*, 9: April, 1925, 232.

² George Wilfred Hartmann. "The classification of adjustment problems among college students" *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 28: April, 1933, 64-69.

Other surveys of the problems of college students have shown variation in the significance of these problems, but personality, vocation, school work, and finances invariably rank high in the lists.

In a survey of several thousand students at Syracuse University, they were asked to check, in a list of problems, those upon which they desired advice that had not been received. The following list is arranged in order of incidence of checking.¹

Problems of own personality	Choice of a fraternity
Choice of vocation	Campus activities
Choosing program of study	Love and marriage
Getting out of a difficulty	Sex hygiene
Methods of study	Nervous and mental trouble
Sex knowledge	General health
Changing courses	Political questions
Religion and philosophy of life	Participation in athletics
Self-support	Making a daily schedule

The adjustment problems of junior-college and four-year college students are likely to vary somewhat where the former remain at home in a familiar environment and the latter are away from home, perhaps for the first time, and in new surroundings. Each situation presents possibilities of difficulties with respect to wholesome achievement of adult status. One comparison of the adjustments of junior-college transfers to four-year colleges with juniors who had come through the lower-division of the four-year college indicated that the junior-college transfers held their own in scholarship in comparison to the other group, but evidenced more problems in social adjustment and maturity.²

The emphasis upon selection and survival academically in most colleges presents many students with a serious problem of evaluating academic abilities and of improving methods of study and learning.

5. Critical Points in the Junior-High-School, Senior-High-School, College, and Technical-School Training

When new conditions and choices must be faced that are too remote at the beginning of each training period to constitute vital problems for detailed study or that call for evaluation of previous plans and experiences, the need for orientation is indicated. The choice of electives or

¹ Daniel Katz and Floyd H. Allport. *Students' Attitudes*. Pp. 78-102. (The Craftsman Press, Inc.: Syracuse, 1931)

² C. Gilbert Wrenn and Mildred Garrett. "Adjusting youth to college life." *Occupations*, 12. March, 1934, 38-41.

majors in the eighth or ninth year of the junior high school is an illustration. Deep interest in boy and girl relationships, in new friends, and in new forms of social activity is also likely to appear for most pupils beyond the first year of the junior high school. Also the opportunities in various curricular offerings need reevaluation as vocational and other life motives grow and become more crystallized.

6. The Beginning of Adult Training Programs of Various Sorts

Judged by increasing enrollments, adult training has become one of our major educational activities. In 1934, the enrollment in all types of adult-education classes was estimated to be 22,311,000. This number represents one-sixth of the total population of the United States and considerably more than half of the total school population of 36,000,000 children in the country.¹ The fact that these individuals enroll voluntarily would indicate either that they have definite objectives toward which they are working or that they sense some need for readjustment. In either case they should have the opportunity to check anticipated values and goals against actual opportunities before expending time and money for experiences that may not yield desired outcomes.

A study of the problems of students in a graduate school of education revealed many personal and academic perplexities in which they desired guidance. Many of the problems reported showed the need of orientation related either to academic progress or to social adjustments. The personal problems included finance, leisure and recreation, part-time work, placement, and social relationships. Of the academic problems, 79 percent included getting desired courses, choice of courses, use of the library, requirements for a degree, choice of a major, whether to work for a degree, academic standing, covering required work, dissertation and research, and how heavy a schedule to carry.²

III. SUGGESTED TYPES OF ACTIVITIES TO BE UTILIZED IN THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM

It has been emphasized earlier that orientation is a process, not an event, and that activities directed toward adjustment in a new school

¹ Morse Adams Cartwright. *Ten Years of Adult Education*. Pp. 60-61. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1935)

² Dorothy C. Stratton. *Problems of Students in a Graduate School of Education*. P. 138. (Contributions to Education No. 550, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1933)

should be an integral part of a complete guidance program. Any of the activities suggested in what follows should be considered as possible aspects of a total program, rather than as a discrete series of events

1. Visits from Those in the New School

Administrators and guidance workers from the new school may visit the lower school to meet with pupils, parents, and teachers, and discuss life and adjustments in the new school. This is a fairly common practice, especially at the junior or senior high school level. It prepares students to make the adjustments in the next higher level and gives opportunity for mutual acquaintanceship of new students and school officials. Informal discussions and friendly interviews help to build common understandings, dispel anxieties, and provide opportunity for thoughtful planning. Group tests and informal questionnaires are often administered at or about this time.

2. Distribution of Information Regarding the New School

Printed or mimeographed bulletins of information may include statements of the purposes of the new school, descriptions of organization personnel, and offerings, both curricular and extra-curricular, statements as to school policy, graduation requirements, and suggestions as to study habits, effective participation in the school democracy, and possibilities for mutual coöperation of parents, pupils, and teachers. Motion pictures of school activities in process give interesting and realistic views of the school life. Such materials give pupils and parents tangible, accurate information to use in their planning for the new venture.

3. Preparation of Cumulative Records of Information

When passed on from school to school, significant records that reveal over a period of several years the developing personality pattern, the assets, and the liabilities of the individual are an invaluable aid to new guidance workers and teachers in working to insure happy adjustment. Such records should give facts, rather than merely someone's interpretations of facts. Interpretations of these records should be made with the recognition that what the individual is *becoming* is more important than what he *is* at any particular time.

Worthy of note in connection with the problem of records is the co-operative plan sponsored by Ohio colleges and universities to secure uniform records for all high-school students contemplating attendance at college. An effort is made to distribute these students to appropriate

institutions in the light of their tentative plans, thus preventing unnecessary duplication of effort by different colleges in making contacts with prospective students, and improving means of presenting high-school seniors with the most pertinent facts necessary for a satisfactory personal solution of their problems of whether to go to college or which college to choose.¹

4. Visits to School before Enrollment

Pupils and parents may visit the new institution near the end of the previous school term or shortly before the new term begins. Plans for such visits vary from one visiting day during which the school plant is opened to all newcomers, who are entertained by the faculty and student personnel, to a series of visiting days in which prospective students come in small groups. Often each visitor has an assigned pal who conducts his advisee from class to class through the regular routine of a school day and on a tour of the entire plant. Assemblies for instruction and entertainment are frequently a part of the day's program.

The following plan, projected by Ruby Kay Grow for the Labette County Community High School, Altamont, Kansas, for the coming year, is an interesting illustration because of the scope and nature of the activities and of the school and community coöperation that should be invoked.

In April invitations will be extended in person by students from the normal training classes of the high school to all county eighth-grade graduates to be the guests of the high school. The program for the visiting day will include a tour of the buildings under the leadership of students, visits to classes, an auditorium program by students, participation of guests in a wide variety of extra-curricular activities, such as sports, chorus, orchestra, etc., a picnic luncheon with faculty and students, games and contests, group singing, a dinner prepared and served by food classes, and practice of school yells and songs. In the evening the annual school play will be presented and this will be followed by an informal get-together of parents, faculty, students, and graduates where farm folk can meet and visit with neighbors, teachers, and students.

5. The Use of 'Pals,' Student Advisers, or Dormitory Sponsors

Student 'pals' are frequently used in the high school during initial orientation activities. Student advisers and dormitory sponsors are

¹ This plan is reported by Herbert A. Toops in "Aims, Techniques, and Some Results of a State Program of Equalization of College Opportunity." *Report of Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association*, February 17-20, 1937, 9-14.

usually found at the college level, and the advisers like the 'pals,' may function only briefly at the beginning of the term. This situation limits their usefulness for the more fundamental aspects of orientation that are not likely to be reached in the first days of adjustment. Some institutions train student advisers carefully for their duties and secure reports from them concerning observed adjustments and problems of their advisees. Dormitory sponsors are usually upper-division or graduate students or employed guidance workers who live in the dormitories and thus have many opportunities for informal observation and counseling with students as well as for group discussions of common problems.

6. Freshman Week Activities

'Freshman Week' is a widely used device in colleges and universities for meeting the problems of orientation. Donfred Gardner lists the following objectives of such a program on the basis of writings and investigations¹ in the field:

- To make the new student feel welcome to the institution.
- To perform the details of admission.
- To acquaint the students with the objectives, rules, and regulations, and the campus of the institution.
- To offer initial advice relative to collegiate methods and problems.
- To establish definite relations between students and counselors for later guidance²

The programs in forty-one institutions studied by Gardner varied from one-half day to six days, with an average of three days. An analysis of statements from these institutions led to the conclusion that an effective Freshman Week includes the following:

- A testing program adapted to the needs of the institution.
- Arrangements for the completion of the details of registration, such as the signing for courses, the payment of accounts, etc.
- Provision through a counseling mechanism or some other medium for the establishment of faculty-student contacts.
- A series of lectures on the aims and purposes of the institution, its history,

¹ One of the most intensive surveys of Freshman Week is that by Jay C. Knode, *Orienting the Student in College with Special Reference to Freshman Week*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1930, 140 pp.) Knode studied 258 programs in 125 institutions.

² Donfred H. Gardner. *Student Personnel Service*. Pp. 41-43. (University of Chicago Press: Chicago, 1936)

its organization and administration, the curriculums offered, the rules and regulations governing students, and other pertinent elements.

Only enough demonstration lectures to introduce the student to the various problems.

A social and religious program adequate to meet the needs of all students.¹

It is fairly clear from these descriptions that Freshman Week cannot care for some of the more fundamental aspects of orientation previously considered.

7. Orientation through Organized Group Guidance

Orientation courses at the college level date as early as 1888, when Boston University introduced a course specifically to orient its new students. In the last two decades the orientation movement has spread rapidly, as indicated in the following statement by Fitts and Swift, who have traced its development: ²

In 1917-1918 only eight states had institutions offering orientation courses. In five years the number had increased two and one-half times, and in five more it had quadrupled the 1917-1918 figure. In the year 1925-1926 thirty-two states had institutions maintaining orientation courses offered for credit.

In 1930, Wrenn,³ after checking the data of Fitts and Swift against a more limited survey by Blackburn,⁴ estimated that from one-fourth to one-third of the standard colleges and universities were giving orientation courses and that one-half to three-fourths of the courses emphasized individual orientation to self and college life. Similar trends in the development of orientation courses in junior colleges are indicated by surveys by Harbeson, Pasadena Junior College, in 1927,⁵ and by the writer in 1933.⁶

¹ *Loc. cit.* Further reference to evaluations of Freshman Week will be made in the last section of this chapter.

² Charles Tabor Fitts and Fletcher Harper Swift. *The Construction of Orientation Courses for College Freshmen*. P. 169 (University of California Press. Berkeley, California, 1928)

³ C. Gilbert Wrenn. "Origin and present status of college orientation courses." *School and Society*, 31: March, 1930, 336-339.

⁴ Glen A. Blackburn. "The orientation of college freshmen." *Education*, 49 September, 1928, 26-33.

⁵ John W. Harbeson. "A survey of orientation courses given in public junior colleges." *Sixth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*. Pp. 256-286 (National Education Association, Washington, 1928)

⁶ Margaret E. Bennett. "Trends in junior-college orientation courses" *Junior College Journal*, 4: April, 1934, 353-357.

At the high-school levels, orientation through organized group guidance is carried on in the main through one or more of the following agencies:

Home rooms

Core curriculum, into which orientation activities are introduced

Group guidance or orientation classes, usually taught by the counselor of the pupils.

These agencies have already been considered in Chapter V with reference to the general field of group guidance, of which orientation is one aspect.

8 Orientation through the Social Program

The social program in a school, when effectively and democratically administered, affords many opportunities for new students to make friends and good social adjustments. When closely related to the guidance program, it can serve students by enabling them to secure training and practice in the use of social skills.

9. Orientation throughout the Curriculum

Each curricular offering has a contribution to make to the orientation of students. The purposes and values of each field and subject need to be made clear to students. Guidance is needed also on the development of effective study methods suitable in each field, and practice in using such methods is necessary if helpful habits are to be established. Guided evaluation by each student of the outcomes of his experiences in each subject or activity paves the way for more basic orientation with respect to the curriculum and the phases of life represented by each.

10. Orientation through Individual Counseling

Registration conferences for each new student are frequently scheduled with an adviser, counselor, dean, or other official. Personal interviews are a regular part of many Freshman Week programs. In organized group guidance or orientation courses the instructor is often the counselor for his students and can, therefore, arrange a nice balance between group and individual guidance. The group consideration of common adjustment problems lays the foundations for individual conferences, and the latter may in turn reveal recurring needs that can be dealt with impersonally in the group work. Realization through group dis-

cussions that one's personal problems of adjustment are common human problems met in a unique combination and setting may help to objectify difficulties and relieve emotional tension.

Interviews should give the personal touch and the sense of friendly interest. They should afford opportunity for mutual thinking and checking with respect to adjustments and plans. When a parent is included in the initial conference with a new student, the counselor is aided in gaining an understanding of the student's background. Also, the skillful handling of the interview may help to improve the mutuality of thinking and planning with reference to the individual in the home.¹

IV. SUGGESTED METHODS AND PROBLEMS FOR ORIENTATION ACTIVITIES THROUGH ORGANIZED GROUP GUIDANCE

1. Approach through the Study of Vital Adjustment Problems

A spirit of mutual coöperation and friendly helpfulness should at all times prevail in the orientation class that exemplifies a democratic pupil-teacher relationship. It is a place where students are guided in the study of problems that they, themselves, must meet and solve. It should never be a place where an unfriendly dictator imposes meaningless tasks or a benevolent despot dispenses unwelcome advice and admonitions. Ideally the program grows out of teacher-pupil purposing and planning, though the instructor must anticipate many student needs and guide the group toward awareness of new problems. To understand these needs the instructor must really know the students personally and must know what is occurring in their classes, school activities, and out-of-school life. In short, the orientation program must be planned in terms of the perplexities, interests, and consequent needs of the group of students being served.

Through this informal democratic relationship with a group, the instructor is in a very favorable position to secure significant information for the students' cumulative records. Also, through the interpretation of the growth needs of the students to the school faculty, the orientation instructor should become a key person in the process of orienting the school to the students.

¹ Conferences between counselor, entering student, and parent are scheduled during the summer at the Pasadena Junior College, under the leadership of Miss Hawes, Dean of Guidance.

2. Suggested Orientation Problems for Group Study

The following problems are suggested as appropriate for group study:

1. What are the values in high-school and college training?
 - Student's reasons for attending
 - Values to be expected from school experiences
 - Possible contributions of school experiences to student's life goals, involving a rechecking of desired life values
2. How can one make the most of opportunities in school?
 - Getting acquainted with the school — physical plant and personnel (faculty and students), history, traditions, etc.
 - Choosing and cultivating friends
 - Learning the values and contributions of courses, specific subjects, and student activities
 - Learning about the various services available to students (health, guidance, etc.) and knowing where to go for help in solving different problems
3. How to plan a well-balanced program
 - Rechecking or continued scrutiny of needs, interests, and abilities in relation to opportunities in the new environment
 - Reevaluations of outcomes of past experience
 - Inventory of available school offerings and activities
 - Rechecking of previous plans and the projection of a tentative program of curricular, recreational, and social-civic activities for a suitable period ahead
4. The effective use of time
 - Mapping out a time schedule for the current semester
 - Testing and revising the schedule in the light of experience
5. Improving efficiency in learning
 - A recheck of the principles of efficient learning in the light of variations in methods and demands in the new institution
 - Learning to use the facilities in the new institution, such as the library, laboratories, social and recreational facilities
6. Improving skill in self-direction
 - Personal inventory of present self-dependence and skill in self-direction, and present problems of choice and adjustment
 - Reëmphasis, through use, of self-directive techniques in making new choices and adjustments

3. Methods of Studying These Problems

Sound techniques of problem-solving are essential for self-direction. Problems of adjustment in a new school situation call for the use of

these same techniques and their study may serve two purposes: first, the present orientation of the student; and second, practice leading toward improved skill in self-direction.

Whatever methods are utilized should be developed in the services of the following objectives:

To lead the student to an awareness of his problems and to an understanding of the major issues involved in them.

To enlist the student's efforts in numerous types of learning experiences; things-to-do-to-find-out rather than being preached to and lectured at.

To guide the student in making choices and in formulating needed plans; that is, in doing something about his various problems and perplexities and in being alert to take advantage of his numerous opportunities for growth.

To aid the student in checking the effectiveness of choices and adjustments and in revising plans and reevaluating goals when desirable.

Innumerable devices for both group and individual activities can be utilized to serve these ends. They should be recognized as means, however, rather than as ends in themselves. Some of these methods are described in the discussion of guidance through group activities (Chapter V).

V. THE EVALUATION OF ORIENTATION ACTIVITIES

More attention, to date, has been given to the problem of what should be included within the orientation program than to the evaluation of the outcomes of these activities. Three attempts at evaluation will be considered briefly, two of Freshman Week at the college level, one of group guidance at the high-school and junior-college levels.

1. Evaluations of Freshman Week

Jay C. Knode surveyed Freshman Week activities in institutions of higher learning and attempted to measure their success by ascertaining the opinions of college officers and students and by computing the amount of elimination of subjects and activities from the various programs. A list of nine successful lecture topics was formulated, using as criteria for inclusion what had remained in the programs of a minimum of twenty-five institutions and had not been eliminated from more than 15 percent. College personnel workers considered the activities important for the following purposes, which checked quite consistently with the list of topics formulated:¹

¹ Jay C. Knode, *Op. cit.*

1. Imparting knowledge of college history, traditions, customs, etc.
2. Imparting knowledge of college rules and regulations
3. Explaining registration
4. Giving an introduction to the campus
5. Extending welcome and making provision for acquaintance
6. Giving information as to student conduct and responsibilities
7. Providing information about student activities and organizations

Among the general conclusions of the author of the study are: first, because of its very success, seemingly, the tendency is to overload Freshman Week; second, college officials, faced with conditions that call for immediate treatment, turn for aid to orientation devices; third, this does not mean that educational guidance in any broad sense, or vocational guidance, or techniques of study can be imparted within the space of a few days.

In an investigation of guidance in fifty-seven institutions, Gardner reports that comments made to him by officers of these institutions were in general very favorable. There was some criticism that too much time was devoted to administrative details, that too much was attempted in the short time available, and that the lectures were frequently too abstruse for entering students to grasp.¹

2. An Evaluation of an Orientation Course

An evaluation of some of the outcomes for students of experience in the semester course in Orientation at the Pasadena Junior College, required of entering eleventh-year and thirteenth-year students, was conducted by the writer in collaboration with Dr. Harold C. Hand of Stanford University.² Batteries of tests based upon the specific objectives of the course were prepared and administered to experimental and control groups at the beginning and end of a semester. Data concerning scholarship status at the beginning and at the end of a two-year period were secured for each individual in the experiment, together with information regarding the extent of participation and leadership in extra-curricular activities and ratings as to effectiveness of social adjustment.

The data secured indicated that the course was functioning in a satisfactory manner with respect to informational aspects, though over-

¹ Donfred H. Gardner, *Op. cit.*

² Reported in Margaret E. Bennett. *An Evaluation of an Orientation or Group Guidance Program in a Four-Year Junior College.* (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University. October. 1927. 368 pp.)

lapping between orientation and certain other activities in the school program was detected by lack of significant differences between control and experimental groups on certain portions of the information tests. More changes were evidenced in the choices and plans of the orientation students; the quality of thinking with respect to reasons given for plans was superior for this group. Little effect was shown upon the reasons for attending college. Comparisons of the orientation and non-orientation groups with respect to participation in student activities, leadership, and happy social adjustment over a two-year period tend consistently to favor the orientation group, though none of these differences is statistically reliable and the data from which these findings were derived were too meager to warrant dogmatic conclusions. Much research is needed in the field of the more remote and intangible goals of guidance.

Both this study and another by Archie M. Turrell,¹ using some of the same groups of students, yielded equivocal or limited findings with respect to possible effects of the orientation program upon the scholarship of students. Some appeared to benefit while others did not. The results of other similar studies have ranged from very marked improvement in scholarship to seemingly little effect for certain groups.

3. Some Comments on These Evaluations

Further research in the aspects of the learning process involved in most high-school and college courses is doubtless needed before any satisfactory conclusions can be drawn as to the possible effects of the most adequate type of training in methods of learning. Conclusions in several evaluative studies in this field have been concerned with such issues as whether special training in study methods is sufficiently productive of results to render it worth while, or what students should be given the training. At the present stage of knowledge it would seem equally important, if not more important, to attempt to discover how suitable the training methods are for the types of actual learning activities in which the students will engage and to compare the relative effectiveness of different methods and programs of training. It may well be questioned whether or not an orientation program that stresses fundamental values will stimulate students to work directly for high marks, even though it may contribute to improved learning methods.

¹ Archie M. Turrell. *Study Techniques and the Improvement of Scholarship*. (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, October, 1936, 406 pp.)

Measured differences between orientation and non-orientation students were not so large, reliable, or significant for those aspects of the program dealt with in large lecture groups and comparable to the usual Freshman Week program as they were for those handled in smaller class groups with the counselor as instructor. This outcome is interesting when compared with the widespread enthusiastic judgments of a more subjective nature concerning Freshman Week and may suggest the need for more controlled and objective evaluations of this procedure.

Comparisons of two groups of orientation students, one with and one without considerable instructional and reference material at their disposal, indicate that significant gains in information about guidance problems are not likely to result from lecture or discussion methods alone. The reactions of students suggest the desirability of a fundamental, rather than a superficial, approach to the study of guidance problems of choice and adjustment.

Much further evaluation is needed of present and projected orientation programs to discover specific strengths and weaknesses in prevailing practices and to indicate ways of improving this phase of the guidance service.

A BRIEF ANNOTATED LIST OF REFERENCES

- (1) BENNETT, MARGARET E. "Trends in junior college orientation courses" *Junior College Journal*, 4: April, 1934, 353-357.

Report of a survey in 1933 of orientation programs in the larger public junior colleges in the United States.

- (2) BENNETT, MARGARET E., and HAND, HAROLD C. *Group Guidance in High School*. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1938)

A manual for teacher-counselors to accompany the Bennett-Hand Group Guidance Series. Contains suggestions relative to orientation activities for high-school students.

- (3) DOERMANN, HENRY JOHN. *The Orientation of College Freshmen*. (The Williams and Wilkins Company: Baltimore, 1926, 162 pp.)

Analyzes the problem of freshmen orientation, describes methods of solution of the problem, and outlines a comprehensive personnel or guidance program. One of the first comprehensive treatments of the orientation problem.

- (4) FITTS, CHARLES TABOR, and FLETCHER, HARPER SWIFT. *The Construction of Orientation Courses for College Freshmen*. (University of California Press: Berkeley, California, 1928, 250 pp.)

The first and only comprehensive survey and analysis of orientation courses for freshmen in four-year colleges and universities. Includes an historical sketch of the growth of the orientation movement.

- (5) GARDNER, DONFRED N. *Student Personnel Service*. (The University of Chicago Press: Chicago, 1936, 235 pp.)

The report of an investigation of fifty-seven institutions conducted for the Committee on Revision of Standards, Commission of Higher Institutions of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Rating scales were developed to use in the evaluation. Orientation programs were used as one criterion for judging the excellence of the institutions studied

- (6) HARBESON, JOHN W. "A survey of orientation courses given at public junior colleges." *Sixth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*. Pp. 256-286. (National Education Association: Washington, 1928.)

Reports the findings of questionnaire returns from public junior colleges in the United States with respect to orientation programs and practices.

- (7) KNODE, JAY C. *Orienting the Student in College, with Special Reference to Freshmen Week*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York, 1930, 140 pp.)

A careful investigation of existing practices with respect to Freshman Week, and some evaluations of the outcomes of these activities.

CHAPTER VII

GUIDANCE IN PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

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So much attention has been given to personality development as the central task of education that a yearbook on guidance should devote at least one chapter specifically to this problem. In the treatment of this topic the psychological nature of personality and the processes by which it is developed, so far as they have been discovered, will first be discussed. Next, an attempt will be made to describe concretely some of the manifestations of an individually satisfying and socially acceptable personality and ways in which guidance may function in its development. Finally, maladjustment and the function of guidance in discovering early symptoms and correcting detrimental habit tendencies will be discussed.

I. DESCRIPTION OF PERSONALITY

Although psychology has not yet proved entirely adequate to the study of personality, it has attempted to describe and define personality and to outline its development from birth to maturity.

1. Personality Inferred from Specific Acts

Guidance workers judge a student's personality, first of all, from his overt behavior. They note that he stands apart from other children, or cheats on an examination, or shows a great deal of poise and skill in conducting a class discussion, or does any of a thousand other things. These isolated acts, however, do not constitute an individual's personality; they do indicate in some measure his way of handling himself in life. Further insight into the student's idea of himself and of others may be gained through talking with him. These first contacts give an inkling of his personality, but the initial impression must be either confirmed or disproved by additional evidence. At best, the appraisal of a student's personality rests upon an interpretation of what he does and

says. What he thinks and feels can only be implied from his words and actions. Generally much bias and over-simplification enter into such inferences and interpretations.

2. Primary Factors in Personality

There are two primary springs of personality — the organic make-up of the individual, and the modifiability of existing structure through the influence of his physical and social world. Personality is the resultant of the interaction of hereditary and environmental factors.

Every individual is born with the mechanics for action and a drive to action. His action is determined, in part, by the hormones, by nervous plasticity, and by sex. Evidence of the existence of hereditary factors is accumulating.¹ Research on family resemblance in personality, similarities between identical twins, differences in temperament among families of laboratory animals despite uniform experimental conditions, and family resemblance between orphanage children, foster children, and monozygotic twins reared apart (small though some of these differences are, except for intelligence), all indicate the rôle of 'biological substrates' in determining differences in personality. Individuality is derived from organic drives and interests and early patterning. Nutritional condition and disease have a profound influence on personality, an influence as yet, however, not specifically identified.

The organic make-up of an individual is continuously modified by experience. This modification of structure is commonly called 'habit formation.' Through habit revision the personality is slowly developed. The environment is dynamic; it evokes certain behavior. Through meeting the demands of the situation personality develops. Each particular situation is important for personality development but should not be emphasized to the neglect of early conditioning, long-time development of the ego, and selectivity on the part of the individual. No two persons live in the same environment. The use of a given situation by each individual is different. It is therefore impossible to make two differing organisms identical.

This does not mean, however, that the individual's personality does not reflect the social world in which he lives. Certain ways of thinking, acting, and feeling are passed on to individuals by their families and

¹ Mary Cover Jones and Barbara Stoddard Burks. *Personality Development in Childhood: A Survey of Problems, Methods and Experimental Findings*. (Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council: Washington, 1936. 205 pp.)

the community. The individual identifies himself with persons around him and springs to meet what he considers to be significant aspects of his environment. Anthropological literature abounds in illustrations of patterns of behavior adopted by persons who often first take the culture for granted and acquire its ways without any forcing or any rational considerations of expediency. Later they may find conformity to social customs expedient, or appealing, or required by the taboos and restrictions of the older age group. In civilized societies, likewise, boys and girls develop ways of acting, thinking, and feeling that are common to their coterie. These common characteristics should, perhaps, be called 'cultural' traits rather than 'personality' traits.

3. Three Features of Personality

In studying the personality of a boy or a girl at least three features must be considered; namely, integration, advantageous modification or progression, and adjustment to the environment.

a. Integration. Integration refers to the extent to which experience is selectively incorporated into the individual's habit systems. In spite of statistical evidence of specificity, the teacher, the clinical psychologist, and other guidance workers continue to search for patterns of personality.

Persons differ not only in the kind, the quality, and the quantity of their specific acts but also in their total structure and degree of organization. There are individual differences in degree of integration. The personality pattern of some individuals appears to be highly unified. These persons give evidence of a 'central core' of personality that dominates their behavior. Their personality has a consistent, persistent, and pervasive quality that permits fairly accurate prediction of their behavior in new situations. Certain boys and girls can be counted on to fulfill every obligation they accept, while others are repeatedly irresponsible. Some will invariably choose outdoor recreation; others will generally prefer indoor games and reading. Apparent inconsistencies may be due to the demands of different situations. Action is motivated by the dynamics of the situation as well as by the dynamics of the individual's previous development. For example, in a difficult home situation one fourteen-year-old girl got what she wanted by crying and quarreling. That was the only effective way she had found of dealing with a psychotic sister and an over-exacting mother. In her other associations she was a coöperative, attractive youngster. In another instance an inherent shyness may cause a boy to be boisterous in one

situation and tongue-tied under other circumstances. Resistance to authority may be manifested by rudeness at twelve years of age and by diplomatic evasion at seventeen. Thus certain acts that seem to be highly specific may really be congruent; i.e., "clearly related to one another through the complex medium of personality."¹

It is only exceptional individuals, however, whose personalities show the extreme degree of unification described in the previous paragraph. A certain amount of exaggeration of the high predictability of personality may result from our failure to notice the acts that do not fit in with our notion of the individual's personality. The majority of individuals probably have several major centers of organization, inter-related, one ascendant in certain situations and another controlling behavior under other circumstances.

Still other persons on occasion give the impression of being extremely inconsistent. Some of their acts, on the surface at least, show little relation to any central personality. At times they may do certain things that appear inconsistent with their customary behavior, and it would be atrocious injustice to judge their total personality by that single act.

So much, however, depends on our ability to comprehend the 'congruence.' Even the schizophrenic's queer acts are found to be logical if he can be adequately psychoanalyzed. In fact, 'lack of integration' is largely 'biosocial.' The unintegrated person's acts happen not to conform to socially acceptable patterns, yet do conform to some organized pattern of his own.

What an individual incorporates into his habit systems depends upon his social sensitivity, attitudes, values, dispositions, and ability to see relations. Thus the organization of personality results from the interaction of the individual as he is at any one time and his environment.

b. Advantageous Modification or Progression. Progression in personality refers to the extent to which the modification of the individual's characteristic ways of meeting life is advantageous to him and to his fellows. Progression may involve a closer unification of habit patterns and a consequent resolution of unnecessary conflict. It may involve the more complete development of the individual's potentialities, as, for example, success in establishing satisfying heterosexual relationships during the senior-high-school years. Progression for a genius might

¹ Gordon W. Allport and Philip E. Vernon. *Studies in Expressive Movement*. P. 21. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1933)

result in a one-sided personality, requiring the short-circuiting of attention away from many circuits of life in order to concentrate upon the work through which he will make his great contribution. Progression may also be seen in the direction of an individual's efforts toward more socially useful goals.

c. Adjustment. Adjustment refers to the appropriateness of a given act in a particular situation. There can be no one 'good' personality that would be equally appropriate in every situation. For example, one student found that the kind of personality approved in her small home town led to maladjustment in the college dormitory. Adjustment involves flexibility. As an intrinsic part of a consistent approach to life must be included the ability to adjust continuously to new conditions.

To summarize: There enters into personality these factors: (1) the hereditary make-up of the individual, (2) his early experiences, (3) the present situation, and (4) the culture to which he reacts. The result of the interaction of all these factors is a complex pattern of determining tendencies that induce an individual to make a characteristic adjustment to his environment. Growth in personality is toward more complete integration and more advantageous and appropriate ways of meeting life.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

The nature of personality, including the three features mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, may be better understood by briefly reviewing our knowledge of the developmental process by which a person attains, at any one time, a certain status of personality.

1. Emergence of Personality

Individual differences in motor activity, muscle tone, emotional expressiveness, and other kinds of behavior are evident at birth. Infants, carefully observed under controlled conditions, showed characteristic consistency in the amount of activity through the first week. Jones and Burks¹ found in the experimental literature a number of examples of the emergence of characteristic patterns of response during the first few weeks of life. Washburn² noted that many of the infants whom she observed during their first year could be classified into three groups; namely, those who laughed and smiled readily and frequently, those

¹ Mary Cover Jones and Barbara Stoddard Burks. *Op. cit.*

² R. W. Washburn. "A study of the smiling and laughing of infants in the first year of life." *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 6: December, 1929, 397-537.

who habitually cried or maintained a serious mien, and those who fluctuated between smiling and soberness.

A nucleus of personality and consistent patterns of personality emerge during the first two years of life. In fact, certain psychiatrists maintain that an individual's personality trends are laid down by the age of two or three years. The conditions of birth, the feeding situation during the first few months, the experience of comfort or discomfort, and many other environmental forces experienced in the early years undoubtedly influence the development of personality to a marked degree. The baby whose food supply is plentiful and adequate for his nutritional needs is likely to view the world differently from another child whose early experience is one of hunger and discomfort. These early experiences acting upon the inherited structure appear to set up a basic personality structure that may influence the individual to perceive and interpret new situations in accordance with his preconceived ideas and tendencies.

2. Personality Development during the Preschool Years

While admitting the importance of the first years of life in personality development, the guidance worker and the parent expect important changes likewise to take place in later preschool years. And there is experimental as well as experiential evidence that such changes occur. Preschool children learn to make many adaptations to their environment and to integrate their responses in accord with the demands of the total situation. They learn to modify their behavior not only in response to their physiological and psychological needs but also in accord with recognized social acceptability. Their characteristic reactions to father, mother, and next-born child, which are of supreme importance in their total adjustment, have become well established. Extremely significant is the work of Koch,¹ of Jack,² and of Page,³ who reported marked changes in submissive or non-ascendant behavior resulting from a rather simple building up of self-confidence. A small group of shy, withdrawing, preschool children was taught a few skills useful in the nursery-school situation. When they returned to the group equipped

¹ Helen Lois Koch. "The modification of unsocialness in preschool children." *Psychological Bulletin*, 32: November, 1935, 700-701.

² Lois M. Jack. "An experimental study of ascendant behavior in preschool children." *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, 9: No. 3, 1934, 7-65.

³ Marjorie Lou Page. "The modification of ascendant behavior in preschool children." *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, 12: No. 3, August, 1936.

with skills that the initially dominant children did not possess, they began to take the initiative and to reverse their previous withdrawing tendencies. Moreover, this change in behavior tended to persist in new situations. Through such changes in behavior, development of personality may be expected to take place.

3. Personality Development during the Elementary-School Years

In the elementary-school years the child's personality is modified by wider social contacts and new standards of conduct set by the school. He forms friendships that undoubtedly exert an important influence upon him. He has opportunities for leadership in a small group. The demands of the environment upon him are perhaps the most potent factors in the development of his personality. Evidence is accumulating¹ to show the influence of environmental stimuli on personality. In the most primitive mountain communities children under twelve appeared to show little diversity of personality patterns. Their interests and behavior have a uniformity that is lacking in more stimulating environments. All experiences, to be sure, are not incorporated in the personality. They are selected in accordance with the sensitivity of the individual. But, in general, the richer the experiences, the richer will be the personality.

4. Personality Development during Adolescence

These same influences — friends, new experiences, motion pictures, radio, books, and opportunities for leadership — are operating with still greater complexity in the personality development of adolescents. The organic changes and the weaning from the home are generally recognized as most important factors in adolescent adjustment. Another important influence on personality development during adolescent years is the establishing of satisfying heterosexual relationship in a society of peers. As children grow into adolescence they become increasingly preoccupied with social activity. This fact has recently been supported by the records, test results, observations, and interviews with students at University High School, Oakland, California.² The clubhouse, established for the boys and girls in the University Adolescent Study and

¹ M. Sherman and T. R. Henry. *Hollow Folk*. (Thomas Y. Crowell Company: New York, 1933. 215 pp.)

² Herbert R. Stolz, Mary Cover Jones, and Judith Chaffey. "The junior-high-school age." *University High School Journal*, 15: January, 1937, 63-72.

Also articles and reports made by Dr. Marion Brown.

their friends, made no appeal to the children in the seventh grade, who were more interested in team games or in individual activities. In the eighth grade the boys and girls were at first interested in coming to classes in photography, interior decorating, dramatics, and shop work at the clubhouse, but later in the year they used the clubhouse more and more as a place for unorganized social activities with both sexes. By the time they had reached the ninth grade they were definitely using the clubhouse as a place to work out their own social relationships. Some of the pupils who previously had been socially unsuccessful with their own sex found a new satisfaction in their popularity with the opposite sex. They were, in general, strongly motivated by the desire for the approval of their group. Their success or lack of success in gaining social approval and in establishing satisfying heterosexual relationships had a most important influence upon their personality development.

The opportunities for experiences in leadership in the high school likewise further the personality development of adolescents. Dr. Marion Brown¹ has admirably described the experience in leadership possible in a well-planned social program. Such experience calls forth and tests the youngster's powers and helps to develop tendencies that in turn select and direct his further activities.

A certain security accrues from belonging to an organized group. The individual acquires more personal significance because of his membership there. He brings to the group certain values. Through discussion and other interaction with the group, his own values are modified and he takes away from the group this modified set of values. These social norms give him a somewhat different vantage point from which to view new situations. Thus an individual's system of values is continuously being built and modified by social interaction. Trends in adolescent behavior can only be explained by the complex interaction of environmental factors and the maturing boy and girl.

The 'negative phase' that has been noted by a number of investigators appears to be a phenomenon of transition. It occurs during the period in which the adolescent is striving to establish himself in his own group, win their approval, and become grown up and independent. It is frequently manifested in an aversion to adults and rebellion against their rules and regulations. As soon as the adolescent has satisfactorily established his status, the incidence of behavior so disturbing

¹ Marion Brown. *Leadership among High School Pupils*. (Contributions to Education No. 559. Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1933. 166 pp.)

to adults tends to decrease and the adult is accepted on a more mature basis.

5. Implications for Guidance

The teacher, the counselor, and the specialist in guidance can influence the personality development of students to some extent by recognizing and applying their knowledge of the mechanics of its growth. They will recognize the existence of inherited biological substrates, the influence of nutritional condition and illness, the personality and marriage patterns of the parents — which determine, for the most part, the psycho-cultural situation into which the child is born — the early experiences, and the present physical, social, and psychological conditions of the child's life. If the guidance worker recognizes that the foundation for personality development is experience, he will direct his attention toward providing the kind of experience through which social sensitivity and good habits and attitudes are developed. Positive experience is transformed into habits, and habits, in turn, are transformed into behavior patterns, sentiments, attitudes, selves, and personality. At no time is integration complete, for each new experience must be incorporated into the existing habit systems.

The guidance worker should likewise remember that change in personality is gradual. It is, to paraphrase Keats, a foster child of experience and slow time.

III. THE PERSONALLY SATISFYING AND SOCIALLY DESIRABLE PERSONALITY

A 'good' personality is not cut according to a single pattern, and is thus difficult to define. It is not identical for a moron, a person with 100 I.Q., and a genius. Certain habit systems bring personal satisfaction and are socially useful in the Mundugumor tribe while entirely different habits of thinking and acting favor good adjustment in the Arapesh tribe.¹ The most desirable personality for a traveling salesman would not be equally desirable for an accountant. From the point of view of the delinquent, proficiency and facility in crime are requisites of a well-adjusted personality. There is, then, no standard of personality that all students should attain; there are, however, certain generally approved personality patterns.

¹ Margaret Mead. *Sex and Temperament in Three Primitive Societies*. P. 279. (William Morrow and Company: New York, 1933)

1. Approved Personality Patterns

In any culture certain characteristics are stressed and are common to many members of the group. They are fairly universal in contrast to the specific elements and organization that make an individual unique. Among the most desirable of these general patterns may be mentioned a constellation of behavior tendencies described by Professor Anderson, of the University of Minnesota.¹ The person who exemplifies this desirable constellation listens to other persons, incorporates their ideas into his thinking and feeling, takes a constructive attitude toward them, finds a common purpose among differences, and, at certain ages, coöperates with others in group enterprise. He is in direct contrast to the 'dominative' personality, who has a closed mind, increases rather than resolves conflicts, works against others rather than with them, and increases their feeling of insecurity.

The writer found in an unpublished study of more than one hundred outstanding high-school and college students that the following behavior was especially characteristic of the students in this group. They had achieved a sense of security, responsibility, and independence. They had attained an understanding of themselves and a philosophy of life in terms of which they had become capable of self-guidance. Among their characteristics were resourcefulness, initiative, and a realization of well-formulated life objectives. Although they were frequently faced with difficulties, they maintained their poise, stability, and sociability. They had a high degree of resiliency. They tended to work up to their capacity, solve their problems as they rose, and get satisfaction from doing what is socially acceptable. They were liked by their associates, to whom they revealed a high degree of coöperativeness and self-control. These characteristics appear to make for leadership in the high school and college; they are not qualities acquired by all students. A similar study of other groups would be desirable in order to learn as much as possible about the behavior of well-adjusted students under widely different conditions.

2. Unique Aspects of Personality

In addition to the general patterns of personality that exist in some degree universally and function in many situations, each individual possesses a uniquely structured personality. It is this total organiza-

¹ An unpublished paper.

tion that makes an individual interesting and pleasantly unique. The guidance worker, accordingly, should guard against suppressing individuality in the process of securing conformity to certain cultural demands. He should utilize qualities of deviation as well as qualities of conformity, and be concerned with making a student's strong points stronger, even at the cost sometimes of having other accomplishments fall below the average. From this point of view a 'good' personality is one in which the individual's potentialities are developed to their optimum of personal and social usefulness.

3. The Nature of Maladjustment

Maladjustment may be of two types — that involving behavior that is individually satisfying but not socially acceptable, and that involving behavior that is socially approved but a source of excessive, long-continued, disturbing conflict to the individual. In the first case maladjustment may be considered a deviation from the expected culture pattern, not an abnormality. Maladjustment is a kind of personality development, often entirely appropriate for the individual, but not acceptable to his group. Thus, delinquency appears as a normal sequence of events, resulting logically from the interaction between a particular individual and certain environmental conditions. A criminal career frequently follows a typical sequence, beginning in childhood with school work unsuited to the individual's abilities; continuing through the stages of failure in school work (with the resulting lack of satisfactions), of truancy, and of association with juvenile delinquents in a gang; followed by the perpetration of some offense, the commitment to a reformatory (resulting in alienation from a normal group), the perpetration of more serious crime; and finally imprisonment, during which the young delinquent associates with experienced criminals and completes his education in crime.

Similarly, behavior that, although acceptable to society, is extremely disturbing to the individual, has a history of normal cause and effect. It is part of a sequence having its roots in the individual's heredity and social inheritance. Maladjustment may arise in any area of life and be manifested in manifold ways. It frequently is derived from family relationships, unsuitable curriculum and methods of instruction, and failure either to establish satisfactory heterosexual relationships or to escape from childishness and over-dependence on parents. Maladjustment may be classified under five main headings: (1) intellectual and perceptual difficulties, (2) physical difficulties,

(3) emotional difficulties, (4) social difficulties, and (5) vocational and economic difficulties.¹

If persons concerned with the individual development and guidance of students could be aware of the sequences that lead to maladjustment, they would be able to give guidance at crucial points or crises in the child's development. For example, a child who is experiencing frustration of some kind responds to the situation by various experimentations, subjective or overt, according to the demands of his nature. He may daydream about success that he was not able to achieve, or he may work harder at some other activity; convince himself that the failure was due to someone else or that it did not really matter; resort to aggressive or delinquent behavior; withdraw quietly or vigorously from the situation and from friends who might refer to his failure. Or he may face the situation squarely and see what can be done about it. If he tries the latter alternative with obviously poor results, he will seek some other way out. If daydreaming or withdrawing from the situation brings most satisfaction, he will tend to use these methods of response. It is the task of guidance to help him discover effective ways of meeting difficulties and to see that he gets satisfaction from using them. This kind of guidance was given to John who 'cut' class, afterward telling the teacher and the principal that he had been in the shop class. Later he told his home-room teacher the truth and asked him not to give this confidential information to the class teacher or principal. The home-room teacher discussed the matter with John, who finally decided to tell the true story to his class teacher and the principal rather than become further enmeshed in a network of deceit. Before John had a chance to do this, the home-room teacher found time to urge the class teacher and the principal to accept John's confession in such a way as to make him feel that he had done the most acceptable thing. In innumerable cases good adjustment may be substituted for poor adjustment by a little guidance at the strategic time and place.

IV. METHODS OF STUDYING PERSONALITY ²

The measurement of personality is not limited to personality tests, questionnaires, and self-rating blanks. These belong to only one of four

¹ See classifications of problems in Chapter VI, "Orientation of New Students."

² Summarized from pages 213-223 of Ruth Strang, *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School*. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1937)

major methods of studying personality; namely, (1) introspective reports made by the student in questionnaire interviews and test-interviews; (2) ratings by others that indicate the kind of impression the individual has made; (3) observation of his reactions under laboratory conditions, or in a controlled environment, or to definite stimuli, such as the Rorschach ink-blot test presents; and (4) observation of the individual in natural situations. All these approaches to the study of personality are open to the personnel worker; each makes a special contribution to the study of the individual — his attitude toward himself, his reputation, the overt manifestation of his personality in response to a controlled situation, and the way in which his personality functions in everyday life and in certain crises.

1. Personality Tests

The bulk of published work on the study of the personality of students has been in the field of tests and questionnaires. Numerous tests have been devised; a few have persisted. Among the more hardy members of the total population of personality tests may be mentioned the Pressey X-O Test, Allport A-S Reaction Study, Woodworth Personal Data Sheet, Thurstone Personality Schedule, Bernreuter Personality Inventory, Colgate Emotional Outlet Tests, Allport-Vernon Study of Values, Neymann and Kohlstedt Introversion-Extroversion Test, Symond-Block Student Questionnaire, and the Kent-Rosanoff Association Test.

Some of this number have been tried and found wanting; the majority are still in the experimental stage. The widely used Bernreuter Personality Inventory has been subjected to a storm of unfavorable comment and convincing destructive criticism. It definitely failed to differentiate psychiatric patients from apparently normal persons. The Allport-Vernon Scale of Values represents an entirely different approach, aiming to tap the more intangible organizing factors of personality.

It is evident that these personality tests do not measure the same thing that intelligence tests do; nor do they measure any quality significantly related to school achievement.

Certain sources of unreliability and lack of validity inherent in introspective reports of personality should be clearly recognized:

1. In personality tests the natural incentive to make a good showing is a serious source of error.
2. The questions or statements in the personality inventories do not present

the same stimuli to every individual; each person interprets the items in terms of his own experience and immediate mood.

3. A satisfactory criterion of validity is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain.

4. Chance enters into the total score of many of these personality tests in a disturbing way.

5. A psychologically sophisticated, maladjusted person can answer the questions in such a way as to obtain a favorable score.

The unsatisfactory reliability and validity of the questionnaire approach to the study of personality and its failure to differentiate the well-adjusted from the poorly adjusted student must be recognized by guidance workers. On the other hand, when these questionnaires and inventories are used with the full interest and coöperation of the students, they have been found to detect some of those who are in need of expert counseling. When used with individuals, they frequently constitute an effective approach to a personal interview and may lead in some cases to a useful objective self-evaluation. Finally, it must be remembered that a trait does not bear a significant relationship to personality just because the trait can be measured.

2. Observation and Rating

Of the various approaches to the study of personality, the method of observation, including rating, which is essentially a directed form of observation, is one of the most promising. Through observation, manifestations of personality in life-like situations may be studied. The first prerequisite of successful observation is the selection of kinds of behavior that can be observed and that are likewise important from the standpoint of the individual's development. The second essential is a situation favorable to observation. The third is accurate recording and astute interpretation of the behavior recorded.¹

Decidedly interesting attempts to observe a subject's responses to constant stimuli are the Rorschach and other similar forms of the well-known ink-blot test. Printed ink-blots are presented to the subject, who is asked to report whatever he sees in these ink-blots. The ink-blot test is interpreted by the subjects in many ways, revealing to the skilled clinician a pattern of the personality of the individual tested. One criticism of the ink-blot test is its indirectness. Personality trends might well be revealed more accurately and directly by observing the

¹ See Chapter II, "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," and Chapter III, "Appraising Aspects of Student Achievement."

individual in a natural situation or in a controlled environment, such as that described by Taft in her *Dynamics of Therapy*.¹

3. The Case Study

Most valuable of all approaches to the study of personality is the unification of all sources of information in the case study. This is the best method now available of studying the so-called 'whole child.' Any total impression obtained from observation, from interviews, from an attempt to synthesize information from all available sources, from an attempt to predict an individual's behavior in a new situation by means of an intimate knowledge of him, contributes to the understanding of a student's personality.

V. GUIDANCE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Without doubt an individual can learn to modify his technique of responding to other persons. Even very young children learn to behave in a way that will elicit smiles and approval rather than frowns and disapproval from adults. Elementary-school children learn to adjust themselves to the classroom requirements well enough to 'get by,' and some adolescents have acquired the art of cajolery to such an extent that they manage to get their own way with teachers and parents.

The modification of an individual's overt behavior may gradually produce changes in his 'social stimulus value,' and even in the fundamental structure of his personality. He may seek companionship rather than avoid it; show habitual 'integrative' tendencies rather than 'dominative' behavior; and otherwise develop more acceptable modes of response. An example of a marked change in the behavior of an eight-year-old boy was reported by Hohman.² At the age of eight the boy was dismissed from a private boarding school as a hopeless problem. His academic work was low average. According to Hohman:

He was thoroughly disliked by the children and avoided on the advice of the other children's parents. He was slovenly in appearance, completely unreliable about time and responsibilities, arrogantly boastful about his wealth and about the achievements of his family. He had a

¹ Julia Jessie Taft. *The Dynamics of Therapy in a Controlled Relationship*. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1933. 296 pp.)

² Leslie B. Hohman. "Problem child or problem habits." *What Science Offers the Emotionally Unstable Child*. Pp. 20-24. (Proceedings of the Third Institute on the Exceptional Child of the Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools at Langhorne, Pennsylvania. October, 1936)

violent temper, during the display of which he would break things, throw himself on the floor, and strike the smaller children. He was cowardly and disturbingly timid. . . . Added to his disagreeable makeup were certain behavior problems which made him a very undesirable member of any community either of a home or a school. He wet himself daily — both in the daytime and at night. He could rarely be discovered dry. Furthermore, he would soil himself and only when the odor became unbearable would he change his clothes. He masturbated openly in front of the other children and his stepfather. This was the picture of the little boy at eight.

[Three years later this boy has] become one of the most popular boys in the neighborhood as in the school; he is neat and well-mannered; he loves his mother and adores his stepfather; his school work shows him near the top of the class — anything less means disaster for him. He is obedient and affectionate; he does not wet the bed or soil his clothes; and if he masturbates, there is no evidence of it. He is interested in reading, stamp collecting, his dog, sports, and the radio.

[This remarkable change in behavior resulted from] three years of training with confidence that bad habits could be wiped out and good ones substituted. [During that time] discipline was enforced with the utmost rigidity but never unfairly. The boy knew what was expected of him, he never escaped if he did not measure up to the set standard, and devices always were made to fail. . . . After he had been good — something desirable happened; just as something undesirable occurred when there was bad behavior.

The extent to which this marked change in outer behavior represents a corresponding change in inner personality is not definitely known. It would be exceedingly interesting to follow this boy for fifteen or twenty years in order to note any regression or further developments that might occur under new conditions.

In the case just described the person primarily responsible for the boy's reëducation was his stepfather, "an intelligent, hard-working, methodical, and doggedly determined person." In other cases parents, doctors, nurses, family consultation centers, adjustment services, health clinics, child guidance clinics, administrators, teachers, and specialists in guidance all play an important rôle in the modification of personality. They influence the development of individuals in many ways from birth to maturity.

The main ways in which guidance may function in personality development are (1) by changing the attitude of personnel workers, teachers, parents, other members of the family, or other children toward the

child; (2) by changing or rearranging other elements in his environment; (3) by helping him to acquire certain skills and social routines that enable him successfully to take his part in a group; (4) by helping him to acquire insight into a situation and to discover for himself better ways of meeting difficulties, or by helping him to gain information on the basis of which he can make intelligent choices; (5) by providing play and other forms of outlet that enable him to work through and solve his conflicts for himself; (6) by other special techniques, as for example, psychoanalysis; and (7) by self-guidance through goals. Some of these will be discussed more fully in the following pages.

1. Guidance by Changing the Attitude of Persons toward the Individual

Guidance workers, teachers, parents, brothers and sisters, in fact, all those who come in contact with a boy or a girl, bring certain attitudes to the first meeting and are themselves changed. It has been suggested that the baby who smiles easily has an initial advantage over the one with more rigid facial muscles, in that the smiling baby evokes a more friendly response from the persons about him. The consistency with which parents treat their preschool children, the amount of affection they give them, and the responses they make to the things they do and say, all change the child's structures or techniques of responding to other persons.

With older children, likewise, an unattractive personality is a cumulative kind of handicap, for it calls forth a response from other persons to which, in turn, it is difficult for the individual to respond pleasantly. A child who is inconsiderate of others, slovenly, or deceitful is likely to change the attitude of parents and teachers toward him, and then to behave worse than ever in response to their more unfavorable attitude toward him. Such is the case of Robert:

Robert, a fifteen-year-old boy, was referred to a child guidance bureau for running away from home, truancy, stealing money from his parents, and fabricating extraordinary stories of excitement and tragedy that he insisted were true. Robert's mother is strictly concerned with 'doing her duty,' and considers Robert a 'duty.' She has no confidence in the boy and shows her distrust of him openly. She nags, finds fault with him, and seems unable to say a gracious or encouraging word to him. She is constantly afraid that he will bring disgrace on the family. Robert's father is generally severe and impatient with the boy and, like the mother, distrusts him and has no confidence in him. He, too, is afraid Robert will be put in prison and disgrace the family. More-

over, he is not consistent in his attitude toward Robert, at one time humoring him and at another time showing undue severity. Another element that makes the situation still more unendurable for Robert is his younger brother, Harvey, who is affectionate and attractive to adults, but who is selfish and jealous of Robert. He is used by both parents as an example of virtue for Robert and brings home to them tales of Robert's misconduct. The parents encourage him to spy on the older brother. Naturally, Robert's dislike for his younger brother is intense. Altogether, Robert is convinced that his parents 'have no use for' him and bitterly resents the fact that his parents do not trust him or believe what he says and go to the school to check up on him. It seems obvious that the parents' distrust of Robert, their lack of sympathy and understanding, and the severity of the father's punishment are the factors causing the most damage. These attitudes on the part of the parents have their roots in their backgrounds and are reinforced by elements in the present situation. It is easy to see here the progressively unfavorable interaction of the attitudes and behavior of these four persons. The guidance worker will have to work toward resolving conflicts by giving the parents and Robert insight into their reactions upon each other and by distracting their attention from intense concentration upon each other into channels of interesting activity.

Very often the attitudes of the family must be changed if the individual's response to persons is to be modified. Some of these attitudes reach far back into the parental past. For that reason Dr. H. R. Mowrer suggested that the family, not the child, be made the focal point of study in obtaining a complete understanding of a child's problem behavior. She would first study the personality and marriage patterns of the parents. At the 1936 meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development she illustrated the influence of the psychocultural situation upon a fifteen-year-old high-school girl. Ann, though of superior intelligence, was failing in all her school subjects and going with boys of questionable reputation. The mother complained that Ann was lazy and incorrigible. An analysis of the family revealed significant factors that Dr. Mowrer summarized as follows:

It is clear that the breakdown in Ann's school adjustment becomes intelligible as a response to a family situation in which she becomes the scapegoat of her mother's antagonism toward her father. Into this interactional situation enter a multitude of factors, many of which antedate even the birth of Ann. The most significant of these factors are: Mrs. X's identification with her mother as against her father; the reenactment of her early family pattern in her own marriage; sexual relations prior to marriage which symbolized a threat to her dominance and became the basis for sadistic attitudes toward her husband; Mr. X's tendency toward

subjective adjustments, intensified by his wife's critical and deprecative attitudes toward him; intense domestic discord early in the marriage into which situation the birth of a child became another obstacle to separation and was resented as such by the mother; early identification of Ann with the father as he becomes her champion; close attachment of mother to her son; Ann's inferior rôle, crystallized when the father is forced to leave the home, resulting in attitudes of complete defeat toward her school work and impulsive and irrational attempts at compensation.¹

Two parental attitudes that seem to have the most unfavorable effects on the personality development of the children are rejection and over-protection of the child. A child may be unwanted because he came at an inopportune time, because he is not of the desired sex, because he does not fit into the family pattern, as in the case of a dull child in a bright family or a phlegmatic child in an excitable, energetic family. Sometimes one immature parent usurps the place of the child in the affection of the other parent. This underlying rejection of the child may be expressed in over-solicitude, over-affection, or nagging, with resulting irritability on the part of the child.

Over-protection on the part of parents may result from the recognition of the real hazards of modern life, from the loss of earlier children, from the over-ambition of the parents, from an effort to have the child supply serious emotional lacks in their own lives.

Guidance of preschool children consists largely of work with parents. In the first interview with parents the most important thing for the personnel worker to do is to establish a friendly relation, a mutual basis of confidence and trust. Only when such a relation exists can significant information be secured and suggestions given with any confidence that they will be accepted. With elementary-school children and with adolescents, as shown in the case of Ann, parental attitudes are frequently the basic cause of maladjustment. The school could make little change in Ann's behavior so long as the antagonism toward her mother and conflicts with her brother were actively in operation. In general, the types of solution already mentioned are possible in cases of this kind, and a combination of methods is usually most effective.

Next to the parent, the teacher probably exerts the greatest influence upon the growing child.

¹ Harriet Mowrer. "The study of marital adjustment as a background for research in child behavior." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 10: April, 1937, 487-492.

It is the teacher who has the best opportunity to observe individual pupils under a variety of classroom and extra-classroom conditions. It is the teacher who, during the day, has by attitude, words, and actions the opportunity to present in a hundred or more direct and indirect ways stimuli which evoke either desirable or undesirable reactions on the part of his students.¹

The teacher's attitude is probably the most important single factor in a child's adjustment at school. J. Carson Ryan, in an extensive study of the mental hygiene atmosphere in schools in the United States and abroad, found a close relation between pupils' behavior and teachers' attitudes. Teachers who treated their pupils with courtesy and consideration had classrooms in which children showed a similar attitude toward the teacher and toward one another. Teachers, on the other hand, who were irritable and cross had restless, quarrelsome children, regardless of the neighborhood in which they were located. In one entire school in a poor neighborhood the mental atmosphere of the classrooms was exceptionally fine. There it was found that most of the teachers had come from one normal school in which special attention was given to selecting and educating teachers who would effectively guide children. Spontaneity on the part of the teacher evokes spontaneous behavior on the part of students. The friendly approach invites friendliness. The teacher's orderly association of ideas is a stimulus to the student to think clearly. If one were to venture a description of the personality of the ideal teacher, he might include the following factors: he is a well-informed, civilized person; he knows his students, but does not nag them; his students are his companions and friends and work with him on absorbing tasks that they themselves have chosen in order to reach their goals; there is give-and-take in his classroom and little tension; he expects each boy and girl to do his best and they soon hate to disappoint him; he respects his students; he is a guide, not a policeman.

2. Guidance by Changing Elements in the Environment

Even before birth, experiences begin to shape an individual's personality. Feeding is perhaps the most important single factor in adjustment during the first few weeks of life and may influence the subsequent course of the child's personality development. The child's

¹ Ruth Strang. *The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. P. 62. (Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, Revised ed., 1935)

process of responding to other persons is definitely influenced by his preschool and later experiences. Crucial evidence on this point is slowly being accumulated from the study of identical twins reared in different environments. Freeman¹ has described a pair of identical-twin sisters brought up under widely different environmental circumstances. The first grew up in a home of wealth and culture where she has had abundant opportunities for social life in which she has participated enthusiastically. The twin sister was reared in a home of meager cultural and educational advantages. Her foster mother kept her closely within a home that afforded very few social contacts. The favored twin is "poised, affable, and self-confident, whereas her sister is somewhat awkward, diffident, and restrained."² The one who had the rich social experiences appeared to have more self-confidence and more self-respect than the twin who had been deprived of stimulating social contacts.

Another investigator³ found certain personality traits associated with certain experiences as follows:

<i>Characteristics Indicated by Personality Tests</i>	<i>Early Childhood Experiences Reported in Personal Histories</i>
Ascendance	Reading for pleasure; participating in games
Submission	Little reading; limited companionship
Introversion	Few playmates, few social amusements, rare participation in games; few friends
Extroversion	Many playmates; participation in games; being admired by associates
Emotionality	Participation in many kinds of religious activities

Other attempts to find the roots of particular personality patterns have shown an apparent relation between over-protection and undesirable traits, as already mentioned; between coöperative participation in family life and freedom from aggressiveness and 'show off.' Questionnaire results, however, are inadequate for proving such relations.

The kind of environment that will give a particular endowment the

¹ Frank N. Freeman. "Heredity and environment in the light of the study of twins." *Scientific Monthly*, 44: January, 1937, 13-19.

² *Ibid.*, p. 18.

³ C. K. A. Wang. "The significance of early personal history for certain personality traits." *American Journal of Psychology*, 44: October, 1932, 768-774.

best opportunity for development has not been determined. Suggestions have been made, however, as to conditions influential in producing maladjustment. The seven listed by Prescott¹ are economic insecurity, personal uprootedness, cut-throat competition, conditions of work promoting anxiety and insecurity, delinquency areas that are sources of social infection, and ethnic problems that make adjustment difficult for certain groups.

Stated positively, some of the conditions that, in general, seem to be favorable to good personality development are a curriculum suited to the child's capacities, so that he will experience success reasonably often; ability to carry out the things that he wants to do and that are in line with his goals and purposes; the affection and confidence of at least one person in his environment who makes him feel that he is accepted even though certain of his acts may be disapproved; and the opportunity to feel that he is important to his social group.

Lacking these conditions — and many of them are lacking in the world today — individuals must develop an immunity to the injurious effects of their absence. In every age, in fact, one task of education is to help children develop fortitude to withstand frustration and insecurity, the while they strive, within the limits of their ability, to bring about desirable changes in their environment.

Accordingly, one function of guidance is to change or rearrange elements in an individual's environment in such a way as to effect his better adjustment. Teachers have always attempted to do this. Moreno's² sociometric technique is a more precisely developed method of putting together individuals who will be congenial. By asking children to tell whom they would like to sit near in a class or which house-mother they would prefer in a dormitory, it is possible to discover positive attractions and negative repulsions among individuals. By rearranging the social constellations of a group, unnecessary clashes of personality may be avoided and benefit accrue to all concerned. The same results may be achieved more naturally by allowing boys and girls reasonable freedom to make their own contacts and form their own groups. A social program that provides not only for all-school programs but also for such small groups as luncheon and supper parties, interest clubs, and

¹ Daniel A. Prescott. "Affective factors in education." *Occupations*, 14: May, 1936, 723-732.

² J. L. Moreno. "Who shall survive?" *Nervous and Mental Disease Monographs*, Series No 58. (Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co.: Washington, D. C., 1934. 440 pp.)

dancing classes is favorable to the formation of congenial groupings. A class organization in which students group and re-group themselves in order to complete special projects promotes personality development through satisfying social interaction. Administrative flexibility that permits the transfer of a student from one class to another prevents the ill effects of unnecessary incompatibility.

Guidance in infancy involves creating conditions conducive to growth. It is first concerned with the adequate functioning of the body. The absence of disease, the general feeling of well-being, and a sense of an enveloping affection give a sense of security to the child during the first years of life.

Guidance in the succeeding years up to the time of entrance to school involves a continuation of attention to the adequate functioning of the body plus the provision of a variety of experiences. The mother or preschool teacher provides toys and play equipment that will encourage physical and social play activities. The child's social world is enlarged through meeting visitors to the home and through playing with children of different ages. Guidance functions not only in providing children with opportunities for social contacts but also in giving them a chance to help at home in any way appropriate to their ability. Even in the first five years of life the necessity for taking responsibility leads an individual to 'rise to the occasion' and is one of the most potent means of developing personality.

Other types of experience give the preschool child standards of conduct. If he gets something he wants by crying and screaming, he will continue to employ these means of controlling his environment. Guidance involves eternal vigilance to make sure that satisfaction is attached to approved behavior and dissatisfaction to unacceptable modes of response. It is being recommended that the educator of preschool children visit each child's home in order to observe directly the interactions in the home between parent and child and demonstrate to the mother the kind of treatment that may be given in a concrete situation.

Other experiences, such as prereading activities, first-hand contacts with things to handle, smell, manipulate, count, and look at, help to prepare preschool children directly for learning to read, write, and do arithmetic in school. If children emerged from the preschool years with adequate readiness for first-grade activities, much of the serious maladjustment in the first months of school life would be avoided.

Guidance of the elementary-school child with respect to personality development through experience involves, first of all, providing work

and play suited to his capacities. These experiences, while geared to his level of maturity, should at the same time stimulate him to make progress toward greater maturity. Choice is possible within a wide range of suitable activities and a little guidance in making wise choices is all that is necessary. Numerous situations in which children may exercise their initiative and accept responsibility for their own behavior arise every day. They may be helped in discovering a better response to a situation than they would have made unassisted. For example, a first-grade child who cried when she could not find her book was encouraged to look for it instead of crying, thus substituting a positive reaction to difficulty for one form of withdrawal from the situation.

During adolescence many experiences that are essential in the development of adolescent personality may be provided. The school curriculum is one of the most important factors. In a school geared for the hypothetical 'average child,' the gifted child is bored, works far below his capacity, and develops habits of idleness and daydreaming, whereas the conscientious, slow-learning child feels himself under constant pressure and strain.

This condition was demonstrated in the case of one ungainly boy who was doggedly determined to graduate from high school. He was spending all his free time, even Saturday afternoons, in studying, and still was in constant fear of failure. "I have always felt that I was being pushed," he said, "and if I can only graduate from high school, that's all I ask." The counselor's best efforts to provide the kind of experiences this boy needed were blocked by the rigid, traditional required courses of study. Greater administrative flexibility would have made possible a program consisting of physical education, club activities, the least abstract courses the school offered, together with outside supervised work in some suitable vocation. Guidance in this situation obviously involved providing work and recreation suited to the boy's capacities and needs.

In another case, a girl in a private school was failing in all her regular subjects and becoming obstreperous. Finding that this student had marked histrionic ability, the headmistress let her take part in one of the school plays. The girl's success was immediate and obvious. As soon as she came on the stage, the situation changed from a school-girl exercise to a play. Success in this one line changed the girl's idea of herself as a failure and had a general tonic effect that showed itself in improvement in all her school subjects.

An extremely important type of experience that makes a marked contribution to adolescent development is the opportunity for social interaction between boys and girls of various age groups. A particu-

larly subtle kind of guidance is needed here. If high-school pupils decide to have a party, they must be encouraged to set specific standards and take responsibility for making and executing the plans.

One group of high-school boys and girls organized into committees and spent from one to two months in planning all the details of an all-school fall party. They gave the party excellent publicity through the school paper, bulletin boards, posters, and homeroom notices. They transformed the gymnasium into an attractive rendezvous for Hallowe'en witches, fortune-tellers, and country dancers. They provided games for those who did not wish to dance. The reception committee made everyone who came feel welcome and at ease. After the party the committees evaluated their work, gave special mention in the school paper to pupils who had made outstanding contributions, and suggested improvements for the next event.

A party of this kind, which is thoroughly wholesome and enjoyable, is the best way of setting social standards, for standards should be derived from experience, not from edicts. It is a means of developing leadership, not merely of utilizing that which has already become manifest.

The importance of social training and social experiences is recognized by many employers. They inquire about an applicant's participation in social activities and clubs and show concern about such qualities as initiative, sense of humor, and neatness of person and dress.

In a few high schools the boys and girls have gradually developed a high degree of self-direction. They are free to choose school activities that seem to them to be of most value at a particular time. One day an assembly will seem to them of greater significance than a class period, while another day they do not feel that they can afford to miss the class work. Guidance in such a situation functions in helping boys and girls gradually to acquire methods of making wise choices and, at the same time, to develop responsibility for their behavior. If the guidance is effective, the majority of boys and girls will, in time, learn to set for themselves worthy and appropriate goals, use their own judgment, make their own choices, and assume responsibility for their conduct.

Progression in these respects should be expected as the student lives through the high-school and college years. Too frequently colleges pay little attention to the progression of experience needed for the student's best development. The best progress in learning to live together may be made by informally bringing students in contact with cultured persons in everyday social situations. Thus the Harvard House Plan, the Sarah Lawrence program, the Stevens College curriculum, and

other college programs utilize the everyday, twenty-four-hour activities of the students as the major means of social education.

It must be clearly recognized that guidance is not a simple matter of 'setting the stage' or providing certain information or suggestions. It requires psychological acumen and an understanding of the individual student. In order that an individual's personality may be modified, the environmental forces must become a part of his world, either in the form of active conflict or definitely allied to his desires. If the teacher or parent or counselor can create a situation that the child perceives as related to something he wants to do or to be, the suggestions and information will be likely to function. Ability to comprehend obviously plays a part in the individual's perception of a situation and tends to determine the part of the environment to which the individual will respond. Too frequently students are given information in language that is beyond their comprehension. They are referred to books they cannot read and they have to listen to lectures they cannot understand. Guidance through experience means guidance through *meaningful* experience.

3. Guidance by Encouraging the Acquisition of Skills

The experiments to which reference has already been made, in which definite changes in ascendant behavior resulted from the acquisition of skills, are suggestive for guidance in personality development. Although these experiments were carried on in the nursery school, there is reason to believe that the acquisition of certain skills and social routines are equally effective in the modification of personality of elementary-school and high-school children.

One instance will suffice for the primary grades. Guidance in learning to read is now given regularly in the second grade in certain progressive schools that previously permitted each child to learn to read 'when the spirit moved him' because it became evident that the latter practice frequently resulted in feelings of inferiority on the part of children in the third and fourth grades who had not learned to read.

Social skills are of very great importance in the adjustment of school children. One girl who entered a new school was not accepted by the coteries already existing there, and became exceedingly unhappy and introspective. Her mother gave her several suggestions for making friendly contacts with people, one of which was to find out what they were interested in and to enter into their interests, thus directing her attention toward the other person instead of toward herself. The girl de-

veloped these social techniques so well that two years later she had become outstanding in the ease and grace she showed in social situations. At a luncheon at which the other guests were unknown to her, she made such a personal friendly contact with each of them that they remembered her for years afterward. Social skills are developed in the course of social participation; they are not acquired in a vacuum. Accordingly, the more opportunities students have to work together, play together, go on excursions, and have other experiences in groups, the more likely will they be to develop social sensitivity. The broader aspects of social sensitivity are analyzed and ways of identifying and recording growth toward the objectives encompassed by the term 'social sensitivity' are described in a bulletin of the Committee on Sensitivity to Significant Problems of the Progressive Education Association.¹ Skill in dancing and sports is similarly important in the social adjustment of many adolescents. If a boy knows how to dance, or play tennis, or swim in a group in which these sports are popular, he will have a feeling of self-confidence that otherwise he might not have in the same situation.

4. Guidance by Facilitating the Acquisition of Insight

Insight comes through recognizing the important factors in a situation. Native perspicacity can be enhanced by instruction, for insight involves knowledge. Accurate information is necessary as a basis for making intelligent choices and plans and for developing serviceable techniques.² This phase of guidance has frequently been emphasized almost to the exclusion of the phases already mentioned: changing the attitudes of persons toward the individual, changing or rearranging elements in his environment, helping him to acquire needed skills and to gain insight into the problems that confront him. In a sense knowledge is a tool or a skill, the possession of which gives self-confidence as well as a basis for choice. In this rôle knowledge is an important factor in personality development.

Knowledge may be acquired most efficiently in response to immediate specific needs; its acquisition is affected by various personal factors associated with the period of learning. Accordingly, the most effective

¹ Hilda Taba. *Social Sensitivity*. Progressive Education Association Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study. Bulletin No. 6. (American Education Press, Inc.: Columbus, Ohio, 1936)

² See Chapters II, III, IV, and V on "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," "Appraising Aspects of Student Achievement," "Counseling with Students," and "Guidance through Group Activities."

way to give an individual certain facts is in the situation in which he needs them. A high-school boy going to his first formal dance welcomes knowledge of social usage that several years ago he would have rejected. The 'cold storage' method of giving any information is, in general, wasteful. By the time the individual is ready to use the knowledge he has acquired, much of it has been forgotten or is no longer correct.

The attitude of a student toward the persons giving information affects his reaction. Information given by a person who is loved and respected is favorably received, whereas equally sound advice offered by a person who has caused antagonism is likely to be rejected.

Attempts have been made to develop personality through courses. In certain high schools there are classes in 'personality' in which rules of etiquette are discussed and demonstrated, and suggestions are made to pupils for improving their personal appearance and the more superficial aspects of their social responses. Insofar as this kind of instruction gives students information about acceptable ways of behaving in different social situations and results in more favorable initial responses to them on the part of other persons, it may be justified. Insofar as it increases self-consciousness in social situations, it interferes with the acquisition of true courtesy, the essence of which is spontaneity and consideration for others.¹

The best way to develop insight is in connection with specific occurrences. Students may be encouraged to analyze their own difficulties. For example, a high-school girl confessed to a teacher that she was not popular with boys and girls and was very unhappy about it. The teacher asked her to try to recall whether she had done anything that seemed to evoke an unfavorable reaction to her. The girl recalled her efforts to 'run' the basketball team and the other girls' refusal to be dictated to by her. She tried to account for the fact that no one seemed to have a good time at the party she had recently given. She decided that one cause of her unpopularity was her tendency to want to dominate every situation rather than to cooperate with others and fit into their plans. Once having gained this insight, she was able to make definite plans for revising at least one habit that was interfering with her success. Similarly, by thinking through the situation boys and girls may gain valuable insight into the causes of their failure in academic work, antagonism toward parents and siblings, and other conflicts.

¹ Other forms of group work bearing on personality development are treated in Chapter V.

The ability to take an objective attitude toward oneself, to recognize one's strengths and weaknesses and to apply the intelligence one has to the solution of his personal problems without emotionality, is one of the most important aspects of a personally satisfying and socially acceptable personality. It is here that the specialized techniques of the psychiatrist or psychoanalyst are useful in some cases by revealing the deeper origins of maladjustment.

5. Guidance by Suggesting Goals

Extremely important are the direction and motivation given to personality development through the pursuit of a purpose. The importance of self-determined goals, and of objectives leading to these goals, has been emphasized in previous chapters.¹ It should be repeated here, however, that goals cannot be thrust upon individuals; they can sometimes be suggested on the basis of a thorough study of the individual's traits and interests but they definitely must fit in with his present personality pattern. At this point it is necessary only to show the effect on the integration of personality of a purpose directed outside oneself. Such a purpose determines, in the first place, the things that are given attention and the way they are perceived. In the second place, it determines, to a large extent, the vigor with which a given task is undertaken. Purpose mobilizes the whole personality. It unifies the various and sometimes conflicting psychological systems for effective functioning.

VI. GUIDANCE IN THE CORRECTION OF MALADJUSTMENTS

According to our definition of maladjustment as part of the developmental process, the methods already suggested for guidance in personality development are equally appropriate for what appear, in terms of the demands of the culture, to be personality 'fault lines'; i.e., tendencies that will interfere with the individual's best adjustment in the culture in which he lives.

1. Disciplinary Problems and Guidance

According to this point of view, discipline becomes a problem of guidance in personality development instead of a technique for obtaining obedience to authority. Discipline merges with child study and adjustment, with the individualization of education and with the emphasis upon mental hygiene in education. The emphasis upon guidance

¹ See Chapter I on "Guidance and Purposive Living."

in discipline is to provide favorable conditions for children's development and to help them meet new situations effectively. The modern conception of discipline emphasizes a satisfying pupil-teacher relationship as a prerequisite to guiding pupils' activities. In the ideal situation where this philosophy of discipline is operative, the guidance worker who knows the student best and is loved and respected by him is the logical person to deal with disciplinary problems. It is only when the older idea of discipline as the meting out of prescribed punishment for defined offenses persists that guidance should be separated from discipline.

2. Early Recognition of Symptoms of Serious Maladjustment

Of all the signs of maladjustment which have been reported, some are undoubtedly more significant than others. It would be desirable to know which are more portentous, so that dangerous personality trends might be avoided. . . . The following behavior, which appears to some extent in normal persons also [and most of which has its good points at times], has been mentioned as prognostic of mental breakdown: depression or even protracted unhappiness, moroseness in appearance, the idea of suicide, excessive worry about academic work, undue sense of responsibility, extremely 'model' behavior, undue excitability, seclusiveness, non-communicative behavior, decreased energy output, irrationality in conversation, sleeplessness, lack of emotional control, inability to concentrate, over-reaction to criticism, extreme sensitivity increasing with age, excessive homesickness, close attachment to some member of the family, restlessness, sudden slump in work, sudden change of course, and premature desire to leave school. . . . Extreme behavior of these kinds, increasing in severity with age, is indicative of future danger to mental health.¹

The importance of the early recognition of serious mental disorders is generally recognized.² In the majority of cases an early diagnosis of the difficulty indicates a favorable prognosis. Teachers and parents, although not experts in mental diseases, are in a position to observe such deviations from normal development as have been mentioned in the previous paragraph. They are not competent to treat serious malad-

¹ Ruth Strang. *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School*. Pp. 29-30. (Harper and Brothers: New York, 1937)

² See Chapters II and VI on "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," and "Orientation of New Students."

justment, and too often make the error of attempting to deal with the symptoms rather than to seek assistance in correcting the basic conditions responsible for the maladjustment.

3. Kinds of Problems Frequently Encountered

The problems most frequently reported by students themselves, by their advisers, and in special investigations of student problems, are intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and financial.¹ In a preliminary report Gilbert Wrenn has briefly described the major studies of adolescence under way. Problems due to variability in body type, stage of maturity, rate of attaining maturity, symmetry and appropriateness of type of growth, acne, and the guidance of adolescents under normal school conditions are being studied in the research relating to adolescence being carried on in Oakland and Berkeley, California; the dynamics of behavior and the deeper origins of emotional adjustments, as well as curricular modification, are being emphasized in the study of adolescence undertaken by a special staff of the Progressive Education Association; the American Youth Commission has interviewed some 20,000 youths in order to ascertain their background, present problems, interests, and attitudes; the Shady Hill School, at Cambridge, is a research laboratory in which, it is hoped, under the direction of the Harvard Psychological Clinic, light will be thrown upon the emotional patterns of children; the General College of the University of Minnesota is studying the characteristics of adolescents with particular emphasis upon the home and community backgrounds that affect attitudes and college behavior patterns. These researches on adolescence should eventually supply many valuable suggestions for guidance in the personality development of this group — and personality development is the central task of guidance.

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CHAPTER VIII

GUIDANCE IN TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL
TO COMMUNITY LIFE¹

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I. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS FORCED TO FACE PROBLEMS
OF LIFE ADJUSTMENT

Out of the experience of the past there has evolved a persistent educational philosophy characterized by purposeful instruction and individual guidance for all young people. The potency of this movement has been so great in recent years that few educational institutions have entirely escaped its impact, even though various forces from time to time have endeavored to preserve the *status quo*. Increasingly, our leading educators and thinking citizens have become aware that the schools must take a larger part in improving youth's possibilities for living more successfully and happily amidst continuous social change. Slowly but surely, the American system of public education is committing itself to the democratic policy of preparing all individuals to meet the many-sided problems of adjustment that face them in active community life.

The modern school or college can no longer permit its staff members to blink at the many social changes now taking place. The pertinent trends that impinge upon all student activity and service must be studied and appraised for use in instructional and guidance work. To this end, all must cooperate to help youth (1) to analyze individual capacities and interests, (2) to secure reliable information about existing possibilities and requirements, and (3) to make appropriate decisions leading to future plans and adjustments.

During the past decade, it has become increasingly evident that

¹ Unless otherwise specified, the data referred to in this chapter have been taken from a ten-year "Guidance Evaluation Study," as yet unpublished. This study had its inception in an earlier study, the results of which appeared in the *Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II*, of this Society, 1924.

unwise decisions result in maladjustments that tend to make individuals liabilities rather than assets to their families, communities, and states. Thousands of case studies have revealed that failure in school and community activity frequently breeds such traits as sullenness, intolerance, indifference, irritability, selfishness, jealousy, and inferiority, none of which is acceptable in either social or occupational life. Therefore, it is of the utmost importance that each child be helped to succeed. In most instances it is not the activity itself that is so significant, but rather the child's attitude and his estimation of himself that are far-reaching. In short, we confront as one task that of "Guidance in Personality Development," which is treated in detail in Chapter VII.

Both secondary schools and institutions of higher learning are now being forced to recognize many new adjustment problems inherent in the complex and confused nature of present-day community life. Of necessity, all educational workers have become somewhat conversant with the new social problems that are being created (1) by prevailing unemployment tendencies and consequent welfare services, (2) by revolutionizing technological changes and shifting occupational conditions, (3) by changing home functions and modified family relationships, (4) by decreased working hours and increased leisure time, and (5) by a growing number of community regulations and corresponding responsibilities of citizenship. It is to be hoped that all concerned are becoming equally aware of the many new educational needs growing out of these too often disconcerting changes in social life.

II. GUIDANCE SERVICES CHALLENGED BY CHANGING NEEDS IN COMMUNITY LIFE

It is now apparent that the best interests of youth and society can be safeguarded only by providing the kinds and qualities of guidance service which will: (1) keep the largest number of children properly adjusted and profitably engaged in school and outside activities, and (2) assist each individual in making desirable transition from school to the social, recreational, health, and vocational aspects of community life.

Rapidly shifting social conditions have brought new difficulties that require the building of stronger bridges between available school experiences and other life situations. It is evident on every hand that we are experiencing difficulty in keeping pace with the changing needs of a cosmopolitan population that increased markedly during the past few decades. Then, too, the prevailing complexities of social and occupational life are causing nearly all families and related agencies to become

less and less effective in providing children with much-needed information and advice about their educational and life problems.

Even a cursory analysis of the recent enormous growth in occupational classifications and their accompanying problems of complexity, technicality, and specialization reveals increased obligations for systematic guidance and organized training. Obviously, challenging problems of education, occupation, recreation, and citizenship confront all who are active in facilitating the transition of young persons from school preparation into community specifications.

Within the past few years, young persons and adults alike have been more or less bewildered by the strange maze of changes that have gradually come into their lives. They naturally have wondered why these unlooked-for developments, over which they have had no control, should force new sets of requirements upon them. Great numbers of these individuals will never fulfill their earlier plans or go back to their old jobs, since the need for these particular jobs will be no more. Fortunately, no individual is limited either to one plan or to one job, but is subject to a wide range of possible educational and occupational adjustments.

Yes, social changes have gradually revolutionized and simplified nearly all methods of living, working, and dealing with others. But what is the nature of these sweeping adjustment demands? Why are individuals and schools forced to make perpetual changes in their plans to meet the continuing changes of a progressively complex social order? Just what developments are responsible for these social changes and forced adjustments that were undreamed of until recent years? Perhaps a brief analysis of a few of the prevailing social changes and of the corresponding needs for adjustment will aid in answering these questions.

III. MODERN SOCIETY CONFRONTS YOUTH WITH DEMANDS FOR NEW ADJUSTMENTS

The foregoing discussion of changing demands has suggested something of the extent to which individuals and schools must make drastic adjustments to meet the new specifications now appearing on the community horizon. But to what extent are we actually aiding each individual who leaves school, by choice or by necessity, to make his future plans and life preparation a worthwhile investment? Are we assisting him to the point where he can expect to attain a reasonable degree of success and happiness?

1. Present Plight of Out-of-School Youth

There are several specific tendencies in modern life that serve to show the present plight of out-of-school youths in America. In 1936, over 1,500,000 young persons of varied qualifications were reported to have made transfer from school to community life. A majority of these individuals who had reached the age of employability were unable to register as contributing citizens.¹ Today's story of restricted employment possibilities and limited educational opportunities is well known to young persons in this country.

In nearly all communities there are elementary-school, high-school, vocational-school, and college withdrawals or graduates who, unable to attend school or secure employment, now find themselves without educational chart and occupational compass. Only a small percentage of these localities have been thoughtful enough to organize advisory committees or set up guidance services to assist these young people in continuing their educational and life plans. Through suitable arrangements, such as post-graduate study, work experience, correspondence study, and extension courses, all unoccupied youths can be aided in making better preparation for adjustment to community life.

Less than three years ago, the United States Office of Education reported the disturbing fact that fully three-fourths of the children of this country were found to have left school by the end of the eighth grade. Furthermore, it was discovered that over one-half of those who had entered the high school left it before graduation. This deplorable picture has been modified somewhat since this study was made, as the more restricted employment of youth under eighteen has tended to force continued education upon many of these boys and girls who previously left school for jobs as soon as the compulsory attendance laws permitted.

It is now recognized that improved child labor laws and modified code provisions promise to eliminate nearly all types of employment up to the age of at least sixteen. This tends to lengthen young people's schooling, to strengthen their general background of education, and to make possible greater amounts of special training and community activity. The recent trend toward minimal wage provisions will make it generally unprofitable to hire young, untrained workers. This de-

¹ For a more detailed reference to out-of-school and out-of-work youths, see J. W. Studebaker. "Crucial issues in education." *School Life*, 12: March, 1937, 194.

velopment is certain to keep a larger number of children in school longer, since the majority will not become acceptable to employers until they are at least eighteen years old.

Because of the lack of work opportunities, hundreds of thousands of these young folk are today reappearing on the doorsteps of our public educational institutions. In the main, they are of the groups who either have left school or would be leaving if jobs were available. This increase in the number of young persons who are not finding satisfaction for their needs in attending school or in securing employment is not just a temporary phenomenon. Quite to the contrary, it is an increasingly evident trend that has been set in sharp relief by grave economic conditions.

These forgotten young people, regardless of their previous education, now need assistance in profitably utilizing all of their unemployed time in attaining a better and broader preparation for working, playing, and living with others.

2. Prevailing Inconsistencies between Preparation and Life

Thousands of secondary schools, now overflowing with a large group of less than 'mine run' scholastic ability, are beginning to consider this difficult problem. To date, the majority of these schools have failed to make ample provisions for the special needs of these newcomers. As a result, the training offered often appears to the thoughtful student to be inconsistent with his plans. The school, he has been told, will prepare him to meet life problems. But a casual survey of the school's offerings usually convinces him that college-entrance requirements are of first importance in the minds of those who approve his program of studies. As he continues his school work, he may experience even greater difficulty in justifying his study program as a means of preparation for the life problems he expects to meet soon after graduation.

Students in vocational and college courses likewise are perplexed by the many inconsistencies that they find between the present preparation pursued in school and the actual qualifications required in life. For example, it recently was revealed, through a nationwide investigation of 2630 separate occupational classifications and corresponding training provisions,¹ that our educational institutions are still pre-

¹ For detailed explanations and findings of this study, see A. H. Edgerton. *Your Life-Career Outlook*. (Mentzer, Bush and Company; Chicago, 1938)

paring students for job specifications as they existed in vocational and professional life some four and one-half to over nineteen years ago. A large majority of those who entered the 72,143 positions studied¹ had not been trained adequately in either school or college to meet the essential present-day requirements of these representative life callings. After eliminating the kinds of preparation that necessarily must be acquired 'on the job,' following employment, it was found that vocational departments and schools generally are sending individuals into the occupational pursuits of agriculture, commercial trading, building industries, mining, and the like, equipped more or less for the entrance requirements known to have been acceptable from about four and one-half to nearly nine years ago.

The discrepancies between the existing courses of preparation offered by institutions of higher learning and the corresponding professional and semiprofessional endeavors for which they attempt to train were discovered to be even greater than those already indicated. As a group, institutions preparing students for the older learned professions are the worst offenders, since, with few exceptions, physicians, lawyers, and engineers are being trained for occupational specifications that were recognized as quite appropriate approximately nine, eleven, and fifteen years ago. The program of training for such occupations as social work, journalism, advertising, teaching, library work, dentistry, nursing, preaching, and the like, is represented by a pattern of courses that would have been considered adequate some five and one-half to twelve years or more ago. Unless we are to continue counseling and training youth for occupational specifications that no longer exist, all educational and guidance workers must make every effort to secure long-neglected coordination between present school services and actual life requirements.

3. Changing Qualifications for Occupational Success

It is implied from these inconsistencies that many new training and guidance needs have been made essential by the changes in social life.

¹ With the cooperation of eighty-four qualified investigators in the twenty-nine states reported upon in the *Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II*, of this Society, 6008 representative employers were interviewed. Analysis forms and check sheets used for each of the 2630 occupational classifications were filled out and checked for the 72,143 employment situations by three separate investigators. The positions studied represent fairly equal samplings of small and large establishments as well as of types of occupations.

From the findings of the previously mentioned studies of occupational trends,¹ there is plenty of evidence to predict that in the job hunt of tomorrow the race will be to the socially well-adjusted and to the versatile. It has been found, among other things, that the individual most in demand is one who can get along successfully with other persons, control his emotions, and the like. Mere knowledge and skill no longer suffice. Employers insist that social facility is now an indispensable factor in occupational success. Such shortcomings as poor self-control, discourtesy, dishonesty, and lack of dependability must be conquered if one is to succeed.

The investigation of 72,143 positions also revealed that the future employee will be expected to prepare for, and do well, two or three different kinds of related work rather than one highly specialized task. Thus it seems that the day of the narrow specialist who knows only his highly technical duties is gradually passing in many occupational divisions. In the modern scheme of affairs, for example, there is growing need for the salesman who is trained in related divisions of science and engineering; for the advertising man who is competent in accounting and statistics; for the machinist who is skilled in welding and tool-making; for the stenographer who is equipped with bookkeeping and office-machine operation; and for the bank or trust company worker who is experienced in farm or industrial management.

More and more occupations of college grade and below it are found to be composed of a variety of specialized functions. Through a natural division of labor, young men and women are becoming combination-job-specialists. The law profession, for example, is confronted with the taking over of many of its traditional functions by banks, trust companies, and governmental agencies that, in turn, hire lawyers to handle their composite legal tasks. Many of the agricultural, commercial, homemaking, and industrial pursuits can be considered only in terms of varying patterns of specialization. For most persons, occupational life means the securing of specialized combination positions and the making of progressive adjustments to changing job specifications.

As a result, broad liberal studies and flexible technical training are being required to meet the ever-changing specifications in nearly all

¹ See also A. H. Edgerton. "When jobs change, guidance must change." *The Nation's Schools*, 13: June, 1934, 15-17, for a brief summary and charting of the preliminary reactions of 338 representative employers who acted as a control group throughout these studies of trends in employment qualifications.

classifications. There is frequent necessity for switching from one job combination to another, on account of the sudden adoption of newly created or drastically modified occupational methods. In planning a career, the student can no longer afford to graduate with little understanding of the particular qualifications and services required on the 'firing line' of workaday world experience. Unless the individual's preparation is to be something apart from the existing employment demands, it must tend to emphasize breadth of training rather than narrowness of specialization.

4. Existing Limitations of Community Experiences of Students

a. Employment Situations Limit Learning Opportunities. Many young persons confess that they are more than a little confused in attempting to visualize themselves as contributing members of society. They have been led to believe that favorable conditions in life situations must bring about not only proper health and happiness, but opportunities for learning and growth as well. They have reason to assume that the school and the community will coöperate in bringing about their most advantageous adjustment. At various times, they have heard employers strongly advise young men and women to secure only their general education and basic preparation in school or college. They were interested to be informed that the employment situation itself can make better provision for practical applications and for further training in the technical requirements of the occupation. But when they have occasion to investigate some of these training provisions in employment, they often discover that conditions favorable to learning and growth are not awaiting them.

After carefully considering his interests and abilities, one of them may decide that he will become a skilled worker in some occupation in which there is reported to be a good outlook for placement and promotion. As he studies the part-time and full-time employment experiences of others, he becomes fearful that he, too, may be considered only in terms of his ability to help maintain mass production. He suddenly has awakened to the fact that progressive training leading to promotion is difficult to secure 'on the job' where immediate production work may be curtailed by the process.

Youth naturally questions the sincerity of the employer who so enthusiastically advises future workers to secure broad school training, and then unhesitatingly places them on highly specialized production work without providing the advantages of further training for ad-

vancement. Thus, the inconsistencies of school experiences are sometimes found to be exceeded by those met in employment situations.

b. Community Enterprises Limit Exploratory Experiences. These perplexing problems encountered by youths in planning school preparation and work adjustment are matched only by those faced in attempting home and community participation. Many young persons of this generation have never had any sort of real responsibilities that would demonstrate the satisfaction that comes from contributing their share to home or community needs. The validity of the claim that youth needs responsibility is based mainly upon the unquestionable need of practical life experiences to pave the way for future adjustments. Idleness on the part of adolescents sometimes leads to undesirable mental attitudes and even anti-social tendencies.

Up until somewhat less than a half century ago, young people during out-of-school hours were generally allowed and expected to share a wide range of experiences about the home, in the office, on the farm, in the factory, or through other forms of local endeavor. Such widely varying first-hand samplings of work, responsibility, and coöperative activity ordinarily provided valuable trial acquaintances with a number of opportunities and limitations in home and community affairs. From these practical self-finding experiences children also derived certain degrees of independence and self-reliance as well as understandings and skills for later participations in social life.

But preparation for community living is more difficult today. Technological and other social changes have brought about conditions that largely deprive youth of this privilege of testing interests and abilities. The growing popularity of small-home and apartment living, the extensive use of labor-saving methods and mechanisms, and the economical nature of centralized services and production have virtually eliminated all the practical work in which youth formerly engaged.

Notwithstanding these present tendencies in shifting home functions and changing community enterprises, youth's needs for adjustment require even a larger number and variety of appropriate explorations in actual life situations than were formerly deemed necessary.

c. Individual Adjustments Conditioned by Health and Leisure-Time Facilities. Many vital problems of personal health and leisure time confront all who would enjoy the physical and mental fitness required for vigorous participation in many-sided community responsibilities. Successful performance in nearly every occupational endeavor, home activity, social affair, and leisure-time experience is necessarily con-

tingent upon physical, as well as upon mental, well-being. Nevertheless, only a few communities have provided adequate organization and stimulation of desirable physical and mental activities to meet the many interests of children and their needs of diversion. Likewise, the many wholesome avocational interests that are reflected in esthetic, scientific, social, manual, and other hobbies seem to be carried on by individuals with but little local guidance and encouragement.

The widespread movement toward reduced daily and weekly working hours has increased the amount of free or leisure time for practically all individuals within the past decade. Although highly commercialized amusements have grown steadily during this period, a marked shortage of participatory recreational facilities exists in every community studied. This is a most unfortunate and unwise neglect on the part of local communities, since nearly all young people are found to be decidedly interested in, and benefited by, participation in social-physical activities, such as games, parties, sports, picnics, camping, dancing, and group athletics. Furthermore, play is generally recognized today to be one of the most important single factors contributing to well-rounded healthful lives.

It is found that occupational proficiency depends not alone upon productive service, but likewise upon satisfactory health status, personal happiness, home life, civic interest, and recreational activity. Not only does the employer now specify certain degrees of physical health and coördination, but he also expresses an active concern about the recreational and hobby interests of his employees. In fact, present-day youth must recognize that the employer is becoming more and more interested in "what the employee does when he has nothing to do."

5. Preparing Youth to Meet Problems of Life Adjustment

A careful analysis of the foregoing developments and limitations should cause anyone to become optimistic about the future outlook for youth. To be sure, the past possibilities in early unskilled employment and wide community exploration will no longer be available for these young people. But since it is no longer possible to secure such routine jobs and ever-ready experiences, the interested young man or woman will be inclined to turn seriously to the greater opportunities in preparing adequately for a richer life of useful employment and community participation.

a. Preparation for Life Becomes More Difficult. In the future, youth must follow a somewhat more difficult course in choosing, preparing

for, and adjusting to life situations. To benefit most by the new turn in events, one must (1) be sensitive to swift changes resulting from technological and other social developments, (2) be quick to seize any available experiences leading to desirable learning and growth, (3) be alive to growing opportunities in occupational and community endeavors, and (4) be eager to seek pertinent knowledge of changing employment and community conditions. Those who make intelligent plans for this longer period of preparation before entering employment and community life are not likely to find their future opportunities limited by lack of necessary educational background.

This prediction assumes, of course, that all educational institutions will become more coöperative by actively ferreting out, grappling with, and seeking solutions for the many new adjustment problems that modern society continues to force upon youth. Both breadth and flexibility of preparation are prerequisites for each individual who would qualify acceptably for the more difficult specifications in modern community life. In this connection, several communities have recently set themselves earnestly to the task of aiding their young folk in securing real life experiences in return for their educational values.

Selected and supervised community experiences offer young people opportunities to be useful and to learn. Some of these communities have arranged programs that combine opportunity for training and experience with work. These programs, sponsored by school systems, provide coöperation with representatives of homes, farms, offices, establishments, social agencies, public services, and civic developments. The interested citizens agree to accept individuals on a part-time learning basis and the school undertakes to provide related instruction.

b. Social Adjustments Require Increased Attention. This survey of changing life specifications reveals that our future citizens and workers will be required to demonstrate a high degree of resourceful effort, personal dependability, and social adaptability in meeting their various opportunities and obligations. Nearly all the adjustment problems encountered by young people in living, working, and playing with others would seem to involve the growing need for practical social training and actual social experiences. The problems of having pleasant and profitable relations with fellow youths and adults are met in home, school, and nearly all community endeavors.

Interested persons who continuously observe young people in work, play, and other human contacts are inclined to urge greater amounts of participation in the social activities of educational institutions and

community affairs. They insist that young folk need special assistance in adjusting to the problems of getting along with others, learning how to coöperate, making suitable friendships, acquiring sportsmanlike attitudes, developing leadership qualities, and the like. These suggestions are based on observations and studies that show that more youths fail because of apparent inability to deal with people than because of definite lacks in required skills and knowledge.

c. *Occupational Adjustments Require Special Qualifications.* The adequacy of community provisions for guidance and training will mean the difference between employment and unemployment for a growing number of young men and women. This will not be chiefly because some have and some have not high amounts of specialized knowledge and skill in the technical processes of the occupations. But, more and more, it will depend on whether or not they are prepared to adapt and adjust themselves to the changing conditions about them. It already has been implied that new occupations are scarcely created than they begin to change. Only a few skilled positions today employ exactly the same methods that were being used even a year ago. This is one of the reasons why employers are inclined to rank general alertness and ability to learn somewhat above technical knowledge and skill already acquired.

Employers are prone to seek individuals who are capable of keeping a jump ahead of the changing requirements in the fulfillment of their various duties — witness the interesting account of the early career of W. P. Chrysler recently presented in a popular periodical. Other things being equal, those well trained through broad liberal studies and basic thinking processes in school or college are now to have some advantage over the more narrowly trained individuals whose early specialized preparation has sacrificed general educational background. Young persons generally are beginning to appreciate that the day has passed when they can count on securing good employment opportunities through mere 'pull,' friendship, or accident. New employees, they will find, are being selected more and more on the basis of carefully studied qualifications rather than by hit-and-miss methods.

Nearly all employment offices report that requests for applicants are becoming increasingly definite. Practically all 'help wanted' orders specify the particular educational preparation and special qualifications needed for satisfactory placement and adjustment in the designated positions. Today persons responsible for selecting workers scrutinize the general training and special fitness of the most likely

candidates even before arranging employment interviews. Employers and employment managers generally sound a warning to those who might fail to improve themselves while unemployed, inasmuch as they usually open the interview conversation by asking, "What have you been doing during the past few months?"

A large majority of the employers who were interviewed in the employment qualification study expressed a genuine willingness to cooperate with high schools, vocational schools, or institutions of higher learning in providing young men and women with trustworthy guidance and cooperative training to aid them in making satisfactory choices, preparations, and adjustments. They observe that future employment promises to become more difficult for all, since an increasingly higher level of personal qualifications and preparation is being required for most positions.

d. Transition Problems Require School-Community Coöperation. The foregoing reports of increasing requirements for adjustment reveal the urgent necessity for assisting all students with their problems of transition to the community. These varied needs for trustworthy guidance and adequate preparation bespeak growing obligations for aiding students in more advantageous transfer to occupational, recreational, and social-civic aspects of community living. Today, neither the secondary school nor the college can properly equip individuals to cope with changing life responsibilities unless it actively sponsors a program of cooperative relationships designed to organize and coördinate all vital community resources. Only by means of such an appropriate plan of local coöperation can any high school, vocational school, or college overcome the too prevalent inconsistencies that young folk now encounter in planning and attempting community adjustments.

Widely different forms of cooperative arrangements with local agencies and enterprises have been established in a relatively small, but steadily growing, number of American schools and colleges. During 1936-1937, some provision for organized cooperative or apprenticeship education was made for approximately six percent of the students enrolled in the high schools, vocational schools, and colleges investigated in twenty-nine states. With few exceptions, these educational institutions now offer limited combinations of part-time cooperative courses that more or less successfully stress the occupational phases of community adjustment. The more ambitious of the vocational guidance and training programs include a variety of learning-working sequences

to represent student interests in selected commercial, industrial, agricultural, home-service, professional, and public-service endeavors.¹

Since the pressing occupational needs of youths have become generally recognized in recent years, it is not surprising that these are receiving primary consideration in the majority of coöperative plans studied. Unfortunately, however, this marked tendency to concentrate emphasis upon occupational adjustment has resulted in widespread failure to make due provision for several other important phases of community responsibility. Nearly all the part-time coöperative and related apprenticeship programs are found to neglect much-needed guidance and training services for social adjustment. But few of these coöperative arrangements are even attempting to aid students with the urgent recreational and social-civic aspects of community life. Obviously, the manifold adjustment needs of individuals require the assistance of a well-balanced program of coöperative guidance and training that neglects none of the problems of school-community transition.

IV. THE PRESENT OUTLOOK FOR YOUTH GUIDANCE THROUGH EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

In a recent follow-up study of 143 large and small communities,² it was encouraging to find that few educational workers still assume that secondary-school pupils and college students can depend wholly upon their own initiative for making adequate future plans and life adjustments. Nearly all of them believe that one of the recognized major purposes of modern education is to aid young persons with their problems of self-inventory, self-discovery, and self-development. Nevertheless, it was discovered that a majority of the 7912 boys and girls studied will of necessity find their places in the worldly scheme of affairs largely as luck and accident happen to dictate. Although accepted as one of the most urgent needs of the present educational system, organized guidance services are actually offering perceptible benefits to less than 20 percent of the total secondary-school and college population investigated in 29 states.

¹ M. P. Moe and L. O. Brockmann. *Utilizing Community Resources for Vocational Guidance and Training*. (Published by the Authors: Box 217, Helena, Montana, 1937, 56 pp.)

² This investigation is reported as of August 14, 1937. For information dealing with the guidance and training provisions as they existed in these communities on December 20, 1923, see the various reports in the *Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II*, of this Society, 1924.

1. Existing Services for Individual Adjustment

The urgent need for improved adjustment services is apparent in the conclusions reached through this check study of 7912 students. The findings revealed, among other things, (1) that students are not giving enough thought to their educational preparation, occupational plans, recreational activities, and community contacts; (2) that students do not choose wisely of school offerings, life careers, health provisions, outside experiences, and work opportunities, when left to their own devices; (3) that students are most influenced in their educational, occupational, and personal choices by individuals who are not well qualified to advise them on such matters; (4) that the high school and the college do not function as they should in aiding students to decide upon their course of preparation, their choice of occupation, their program of recreation, their plan for employment, or their participation in other community situations.

The organized guidance services available for these 7912 representative secondary-school and college students in the 143 communities surveyed were found to be approximately as follows:

1. Five of every ten students reported they had been somewhat aided by available literature about educational or occupational possibilities, or both.

2. Three of ten reported they had actually studied such life opportunities and requirements in organized classes or groups.

3. Four of ten reported they had been variously tested to determine extent of scholastic ability, life interests, special aptitudes, and personal characteristics.

4. Six of ten reported they had received definite assistance in making educational and occupational choices or plans, or both.

5. Six of ten reported they had been assisted by organized school training courses and less than one of ten by coöperative learning-working programs.

6. Eight of ten reported they had been aided during school attendance in securing part-time or full-time employment.

7. One of ten reported he had been supervised in making life adjustments following graduation or leaving school.

2. Investigation Reveals Failures to Meet Guidance Needs

Nearly all the administrative officers and guidance workers in these secondary schools and colleges agreed that the present complexities in social and economic life, together with the rapid expansion of educational offerings, have made direct, reliable, and systematic guidance highly necessary for all students. But the results of this investigation make it clear that too many students are not offered the kinds,

amounts, and qualities of guidance service required in making advantageous adjustments to school and community problems. These findings show the urgent need for extending and improving all the reported guidance activities. It is especially important, however, that schools and colleges take a more active part in serving youths through (1) learning-working experiences in community life situations and (2) suitable subsequent assistance in making adjustments after leaving the school.

The most frequently reported failures to aid students with problems of individual adjustment are found to occur during the critical periods of school-community transition. This fact reemphasizes the imperative demands for school-community cooperation in the guidance and preparation of all youths. Several of the more frequently neglected individual adjustment needs have been grouped here under the general classifications of *social* and *occupational*.

Social Adjustment Needs

School and community opportunities for adjustment are needed for aiding individuals:

- (1) To obtain experiences in cooperating and 'getting along' with others under representative life conditions,
- (2) To render personal services acceptable to the standards of individuals and groups in community life,
- (3) To acquire desirable attitudes of sportsmanship by dealing, working, and playing with others,
- (4) To make valued friendships through mutual interests in social, civic, or recreational activities,
- (5) To develop qualities of leadership through appropriate participation in varied community affairs,
- (6) To practice social usages and manners by means of local contacts and relationships,
- (7) To develop personality and character attributes for successful social, civic, and home membership,
- (8) To devise ways and means of sharing home and family responsibilities.

Occupational Adjustment Needs

School and community adjustment opportunities are needed for aiding individuals:

- (1) To acquire from reliable sources up-to-date information about occupational trends, possibilities, and requirements,
- (2) To check aptitude and personal quality ratings with actual specifications for corresponding positions in the locality,

- (3) To secure unbiased counsel on tentative learning-earning plans from competent workers and employers,
- (4) To test the wisdom of occupational choices through supervised experiences of self-discovery in the community,
- (5) To obtain adequate preparation for occupational life through coöperative or apprenticeship training,
- (6) To locate avenues of employment most conducive to personal growth, health, and happiness,
- (7) To secure accurate information concerning supplementary preparation required for success and advancement,
- (8) To pursue re-training activities under favorable conditions in case circumstances warrant such procedure.

3. Improved Outlook for Transition Guidance

Notwithstanding the foregoing shortcomings, the future outlook for guidance in transition is more promising than ever before. A large majority of these schools and colleges recently reported some definite progress either in plans for expanding or steps for improving designated phases of their adjustment activities. Nearly all administrators in charge expressed conviction that these guidance services will need to become integral and functioning parts of the whole school or college organization. Several indicated that increased social and economic demands had made it advisable for them to re-inventory present activities, to reëvaluate past achievements, and to re-chart future services. A few systems have already made provisions through committees and consultants both for studying the needs of community adjustment and for extending coöperative guidance services.

The most complete plans for guidance attempt to provide continuous and efficient services for individuals during their early community-adjustment periods as well as during their entire school attendance. The other chapters of this Yearbook have presented suggestively helpful treatments of the institutional phases of a comprehensive guidance program. The quality of school or college guidance activities necessarily will condition the success with which students meet their adjustment problems in life. Drastically modified and newly created adjustment requirements in life call for a coöperatively organized guidance program of integrated school and community services.

Careful planning and coördination are required if students are (1) to know the specific possibilities open to them, (2) to test their interests in the various experiences involved, and (3) to discover whether they possess the necessary attributes for successful performance. In this

process, each student requires vital first-hand information and experiences leading to self-discovery that are certain to entail school and community coöperation. Also, pertinent information about his school achievements, community activities, behavior reactions, and test findings must be collected and used coöperatively. Likewise, he will benefit by counseling activities that involve the coöperative efforts of representatives of the school staff and the community. In fact, all school or college guidance services are found to condition the individual's effectiveness in making community adjustments before and after leaving school. Nevertheless, successful school-community transition is found to depend somewhat more directly upon the adequacy of the individual's total adjustment preparation, since it is this totality on which placement and follow-up services must unquestionably rely.

4. The Necessity for Organized Placement and Following Up

Sooner or later all students require assistance in locating suitable employment and in adjusting to community life. In fact, the guidance program of any high school, vocational school, or college would be incomplete if its services did not include placement and follow-up aid for those attempting to secure employment and vocational advancement. Educational institutions have provided full-time and part-time employment service with varying degrees of effectiveness for a number of years. It has been only during the past decade, however, that even one out of ten individuals leaving school or college has been aided in avoiding maladjustment by helpful follow-up supervision after school-leaving. Such supervision is necessary if the educational institution is to help youths avoid unfortunate failures in their work and their other community adjustments.

The advice for students ready to look for work normally is not to make the mistake of seeking the job alone, but rather to seek an opportunity as well. The emphasis should be upon the applicant's study of a prospective employer fully as much as upon the study of the applicant's qualifications by the employer. The prospective worker should be urged to find out something of the company's policies, including its attitude toward the progress of employees and its interest in their general welfare and growth. This approach, rather than undue concern about initial wage, is urged because the long-time opportunity is far more significant to the future success and happiness of the employee than to the general welfare of the employer.

Just at present our problem is to aid thousands of boys and girls

who are unable to find *any* kind of remunerative employment. As previously suggested, it is highly urgent that help be given to each individual who is interested in following an educational program to prepare him for satisfactory community adjustment. Both educational institutions and community enterprises must unify their efforts to bring about the most advantageous adjustment of each boy or girl. The high school or college should provide an integrated educational and guidance service based upon full understanding of the conditions and needs of both the individual and the community endeavors. This calls for the coöperation of the student, the school, the community, and the home. It encourages each of these agencies to make its desires known and then to undertake those adjustments and readjustments required in order to secure the desired results.

V. SUMMARY

The transition from school to employment has received considerable attention in many communities, but few communities yet have a program adequate to provide the needed assistance. An even greater lack exists for aspects of the life of the individual other than employment. The courses and extra-curricular activities of the school tend to monopolize the time of students. At graduation, the student is separated from this variety of cultural and recreational activities. The task of becoming connected with the community organizations and activities is a difficult one. Many students fail to make desirable connections and consequently fail to continue the rich recreational life they had when in school.

The transition from school to community life is a difficult one, also, for social-civic affairs. Students participate actively in the civic life of the school. They hold office, elect officers, and join with other students in influencing the social life of the school. The school life claims such a large fraction of the time that many students fail to join community groups and participate in community activities. When they leave school, the school civic connections are broken, and the task of establishing new connections is a difficult one.

Two important aspects of a program aiding school-community transition have been stressed in this chapter.

First, the school program should be closely related to community life. The problems and life of the community should be the chief concern of the school. Too frequently, attending school has meant withdrawing from the community and giving attention to academic

matters that bear little relation to living in the modern period. As a new orientation of education is achieved, the problem of transition from school to community life will be greatly simplified.

Second, even then there will be another need of assistance involving aid in securing employment and supervision during initial employment. Also, there will be need of help in locating opportunities for desirable social-civic and recreational activities. The concept of 'placement' and 'follow-up,' long used in connection with the vocational phase of life, should be expanded to include the social-civic and recreational phases.

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CHAPTER IX

GUIDANCE AND INSTRUCTION

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I. INTRODUCTION

The organismic conception in psychology and in sociology, involving a recognition of the close interrelation of the components, has had an important effect on recent educational developments. It has challenged the separation of instruction, guidance, and administration, and has called attention to the importance of the unitary nature of the educational environment.

Recent programs of curricular development have given attention to all aspects of the school environment. The curriculum has been broadened to comprehend all instruction, all guidance, and that part of administration which directly affects the activities and experiences of students. To use the words of Caswell and Campbell, "the school curriculum is held to be composed of all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers."¹ These experiences are affected by such items as the marking systems, the system of grouping students, the system of awards, and the length of class periods, as well as by the class instruction. The development of a total school program with an eye to the composite effect on the experiences of pupils is certainly sound.

The term 'instruction' has been substituted for 'curriculum' in this chapter because of the confusion now associated with the latter term. Caswell and Campbell report three concepts.² They point out that 'curriculum' has been used to refer to a group of subjects or fields of study arranged in a particular sequence; that it has been used to refer to the subject matter, or content, employed in instruction; and that it has been used to mean the experience of the learner. Of this last in-

¹ H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell. *Curriculum Development*. P. 69. (American Book Company: New York, 1935)

² *Ibid.*, pp. 65-69.

terpretation, which is the one most widely accepted by curriculum specialists, Caswell and Campbell state: ¹

The curriculum under this concept involves all elements of experience rather than one only; that is, the content or subject matter that may be employed in experience. The task of curriculum making is very complex under this concept. Pupil interests and activities, aims, method, content, in fact everything that influences the experiences of the learner, must be considered during the process of curriculum making.

It will be noted that these writers infer that pupil interests and activities, aims, method, content, do not constitute the curriculum. They influence the curriculum, *i.e.*, the experience of the learner. The first sentence of the quotation indicates that content is employed in experience. Consequently, it is inferred by the statement that the experience is the curriculum and that content is not part of the curriculum. However, it has an influence on the experience of the student and hence an influence on the curriculum.

The desirability of considering the curriculum as experience is also stressed by Featherstone: "Most persons assent to the idea that the curriculum is the sum total of the experiences which are calculated to modify the behavior of pupils toward rather clearly foreseen goals." ² Later in the paragraph is a sentence that leaves some uncertainty as to whether he considers curriculum the experience or the activity that affects the experience: "We need not say that pupils should never be given failing marks or admonished because of their shortcomings, but we must do these things, if they are necessary, fully aware of their significance as part of the curriculum." The giving of a failing mark is an activity of the teacher that admittedly affects the experience of the student. If the experience is considered to be the curriculum, the giving of the mark is not part of the curriculum, but rather an activity helping to shape the student's experience or curriculum.

A strict interpretation of the curriculum as experience would require that we not use the term 'curriculum' to refer to the school program or the school environment. There can be no *school* curriculum under an 'experience' interpretation. Students coöperating in the same activity may have widely different experiences. Having different experiences, the members of the group can be said to have different curriculums.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 66.

² W. B Featherstone. *A Challenge to Secondary Education*. P. 53. (D. Appleton-Century Company: New York, 1935)

When the curriculum is interpreted as experience, it is clear that all elements in the environment affect the curriculum. The activities carried on by the student will affect his experience. The determination of the nature of these activities and the arrangement of books and other materials constitute the *instructional* program. The guidance service will also influence the experiences or curriculum of students. The administration of the school will implement the instruction and guidance and will affect their experiences by impinging directly upon their lives at many points.

The writer heartily endorses the focus of attention on the actual experiences of students as the important item in their development. Some confusion has resulted, however, from the shift of the connotation of the term 'curriculum' to cover student experiences rather than the activities, courses, and combinations of courses previously referred to by the expression.

The foregoing chapters have shown in many ways the necessity of having a guidance service in general harmony with the administrative and instructional policies of the institution. The guidance phase of an educational institution can be appraised with reference to certain theoretical principles. However, a program in harmony with such theoretical considerations might very easily be less effective than one less sound on a theoretical basis, but better adapted in a particular school to the other aspects of the school program.

It should not be concluded, however, that administration and instruction are static elements in the life of the school and that the guidance aspect must be adapted to them, without any reciprocal adjustment. All features of a school are subject to change. Modification can be made as new possibilities are seen by the staff and as associated factors are adjusted. It is not necessary to move on all fronts at once. Advances in one sector will often lead to readjustments in other sectors. New appreciations of the need for guidance service may grow out of study and experimentation with improved instructional procedures. Also, the need for modification in the instructional program may be revealed by the guidance service as it uncovers student needs.

II. GUIDANCE WITH REFERENCE TO COURSES HAVING PREPLANNED CONTENT

It has been a common practice to determine the content of courses in advance and to expect all students enrolled in a course to master this planned content. The policy is still followed in many, probably in most,

elementary and secondary schools and colleges. While there may be some adjustment to the needs and interests of the particular group being taught, these shifts from the original plans do not constitute a major departure from the outline. Credit in English I or in fifth-grade arithmetic is supposed to represent satisfactory mastery of a defined body of material. It is expected that the major adjustments to individual needs will be made through the choice of proper subjects. In harmony with this conception, some of the larger schools have introduced numerous courses.

The rôle of guidance in such a situation is clear. It involves helping students to define appropriate goals, to become familiar with the nature and purposes of the different courses, and to plan a pattern of courses in harmony with their plans and needs. The planning of personal goals requires that students have a reasonably accurate conception of the opportunities and needs in society for the different types of activities, of their own potentialities for development and their capacity at the time, and of the factors that should be recognized in the planning of their life and education. As modifications are made in vocational, social, or recreational goals, corresponding revision is made in study plans. While freedom of the student to modify his plans is usually stressed, there is expectation of considerable stability in plans, especially in the upper grades. The long period of training for the professions, in fact, for a high level of performance in all fields, constitutes a need for staying with an objective and with a program of training for an extended period.

Under this type of instructional program, there is a considerable amount of separation of class instruction and guidance service. Students come to the courses with their major goals already defined—subject, of course, to revision. They have planned a pattern of training involving certain courses, and the teacher is responsible for giving the instruction.

It should not be concluded, however, that the teacher does not have significant contributions to make to the guidance of the individual. He can further interpret the significance of study in the field represented by the course. He can interpret to the student the quality of his performance and its significance for his present plans. He can diagnose the student's progress in the field represented by his specialty and help him overcome deficiencies. He can advise counselor and student as to further study that should develop the desired level of competence.

He can recognize personality difficulties and handle the student in a manner favorable for desirable personality development.

References to courses with preplanned content ordinarily stress the completeness of the predetermination of content, the rigidity of the organization of materials, the failure to make adaptations to the needs of students, and exclusive emphasis on subject-matter mastery. That such courses have existed and still exist must be admitted. The present writer would join with those who criticize such practices. However, it must be recognized that in many of these courses with content defined in advance there are made numerous adjustments to the interests and needs of students after the instructor has had opportunity to get acquainted with his student group.

All courses have some definition of scope. At least, they indicate the general area in which the activities will be located. The objectives of the course should be clearly seen by the teacher and students. Even when there is a core-course arrangement of instruction, there is provision for elective subjects and the selections should be made by students with knowledge of the objectives and general scope of the courses. The definition of the broader life purposes constitutes one of the important responsibilities of the guidance service.¹ The definition of more detailed and more immediate problems and purposes within the different courses constitutes a second contribution of the guidance service. It is this second type of service that teachers in the different courses ought to give, but too frequently do not give.

III. GUIDANCE IN RELATION TO COURSES DEVELOPED FROM STUDENT NEEDS

The inadequacy of instruction based on the mastery of preplanned subject matter is becoming generally recognized. Teachers now have greater freedom to develop a program of instruction more closely related to the interests, problems, and needs of students. City and state courses of study are being increasingly used for the suggestions they carry to teachers rather than as outlines of instruction that they must follow.

Under this plan of organization, students attack some problem of real concern to them and draw from the subject matter in the various fields in whatever ways may best serve the needs of that problem. The general plan of operation can best be illustrated by referring to a report of the program of the Central State Teachers College, Mount Pleasant,

¹ See Chapter I, "Guidance and Purposive Living."

Michigan.¹ The reader will note the way in which the definition of needs and planning is made basic to the instructional program and to the rôle of the student in defining his own needs:

In attempting to set up a program of individualized instruction it was assumed that there are differences in the needs of students and that adjustment should be made to these differences. The assumption was made also that students should be given opportunity to develop skill in self-direction, including the ability to evaluate their own needs and to set up valid goals for their own efforts and activities. Further reference has been made to clarity and self-validation of goals as essential to an increased efficiency of learning.

Since it was believed that there should be an adjustment of instruction to individual differences, that there should be increased opportunity for self-direction, and that clarity and self-validated goals would add to the efficiency of learning, it may be concluded that no faculty can prepare a list of desirable educational outcomes for any particular student. The student must discover his own needs and plan for himself in terms of desired outcomes.

Time is set aside for the student, with the help of the faculty and of other students, to plan his college experiences in terms of his abilities, his achievements, and his personal goals; and upon the basis of an understanding of the abilities, knowledges, understandings, and appreciations of value which are essential to effective participation in the four major areas of relationship.²

The four major areas of relationship here referred to are as follows:

(1) the *area of social relationships*, which includes the life of the individual as a citizen in the community, in the state and nation, and in world relationships; (2) the *area of family relationships*, which includes life in the home of parents or guardian, life in the new home which the student will help build as husband or wife, and the many adjustments necessary as the student is weaned away from the childhood relationships of home and prepared for the new home of the future; (3) the *area of personal relationships* which includes those varied phases of his life which do not directly involve relationships to other people in the community or home but which are particularly related to his life as an individual; and (4) the *area of vocational relationships* which involves adjustments to professional life, business life, or other forms of employment.³

¹ K. L. Heaton and G. Robert Koopman. *A College Curriculum Based on Functional Needs of Students*. (The University of Chicago Press: Chicago, 1937. 157 pp.)

² *Ibid.*, pp. 39-40.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

These needs are defined coöperatively by students and faculty and provide the basis for the instructional activities. In the core course all students deal with problems common to the group. The core courses for the freshman year were given the titles "Social Process," "Freshman Orientation," and "Physical Education." These core courses are supported by 'service' courses to develop proficiency in the tools of reading, written expression, oral expression, and functional mathematics. In addition, there is opportunity for one elective each term.

It will be noted that a heavy guidance responsibility is carried by the core courses in this Central State Teachers College experiment. The study of needs and the planning of learning experiences with reference to those needs become integral parts of the instructional process. The instruction in the core courses that follows the definition of needs is carried forward under the direction of the same person who directed the activities that led to the definition of the needs. It will be noted, though, that not all the instruction is given by the teacher of the core course; some of it is offered in the 'service' and the 'elective' courses.

In some school systems, the staff coöperates in defining the major social functions and the central integrating theme for the different maturity levels. The program of Santa Barbara County recognizes the following nine basic functions of human living: ¹

1. Developing and Conserving Human Resources
2. Developing, Conserving, and Intelligently Utilizing Non-Human Resources
3. Producing, Distributing, and Consuming Goods and Services
4. Communicating
5. Transporting
6. Recreating and Playing
7. Expressing and Satisfying Spiritual and Esthetic Needs
8. Organizing and Governing
9. Providing for Education

These functions, which indicate the general scope of the developing program, have been defined in some detail by the staff of the county schools, with members of the faculty of the School of Education, Stanford University, serving as consultants. It is not intended that the student activity will always relate to only one of these functions; a particular project may deal with several functions.

¹ *Curriculum Materials*. Department of Education Bulletin, No. 13. P. 16. (County of Santa Barbara: Santa Barbara, California, September 1, 1937)

In addition to the definition of basic functions, applicable in all grades and in all subjects, integrating themes have been designated for the different maturity levels: ¹

Integrating Theme for Kindergarten, Grades One, Two, and Three: Living more effectively in the child's immediate and expanding environment (home, school, neighborhood, and community) through participating in activities involved in carrying out the basic functions of human living.

Integrating Theme for Grades Four and Five: Living more effectively in a changing world and understanding it through investigating man's relationship to his physical environment, comparing and contrasting our increasing control of the environment with the simpler adjustment techniques utilized by people of simpler cultures.

Integrating Theme for Grades Six, Seven, and Eight: Gaining increasing effectiveness in carrying out the basic functions of human living through developing the ability and desire to react to the total environment according to a pattern which is based upon (1) an adequate understanding and appreciation of scientific principles and methods involved; (2) an understanding of the resulting increased possibilities of control; and (3) understanding of resulting rapidity of change.

The analysis of the integrating theme for Grades VI, VII, and VIII, developed by the local staff, will give some indication of the application of the theme in developing the program of instruction: ²

A child of the upper grade level in the elementary school is characterized by a constantly growing and driving curiosity, an interest in things scientific, a deeper insight into living, and a more critical evaluation of his achievements and of those of his associates. He acquires a deeper understanding of the fact that his environment contains unlimited possibilities, some utilized, some unobserved, and others poorly developed. By participation and observation he may come to understand the nature of technology, and hence, may grasp a comprehension of the principles upon which it is based. This knowledge may, in turn, indicate the ways in which we may all enjoy the products of science by utilizing them more wisely.

In order to develop a functional or working command of the principles basic to our type of civilization, the child in these grades must be provided with a task or a responsibility the execution of which is dependent upon a grasp of scientific principles. By scientific principles we do not necessarily mean only those things purely scientific in nature, but

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

² *Ibid.*, p. 28.

rather do we mean those principles of living and achieving which are based on true research, careful analysis, and judicious application.

If opportunity is provided for the child to take part in and observe some of the great activities of present-day living, such as the building of a bridge, there ensues a partial satisfying of curiosity, an even greater understanding of the forces which move man to discover and create, and the developing of a sound basis for judging human accomplishments. The child also gains an insight into the changes in our actual manner of living wrought by the use of such scientific techniques and the ever-increasing interdependence among nations which ensues. In choosing an activity such as the one concerned with bridge-building, we must endeavor to allow the child to concentrate his observation and participation on some project affecting his own way of living. By observing work being done, by attempting to solve for himself some of the aspects of the activity, the child becomes aware of the tremendous achievements of science and of the principles of a scientific method. He begins to grasp the principle that science is based on careful study, investigation of many sources, and a final evaluation of possible choices.

One rich phase of human activity can provide the child with a grasp of the increasing control of environment made possible by science. In one activity he can see the use of science in planning work, in obtaining, transporting, and consuming materials, in conserving resources, in safeguarding human life, and in organizing and controlling men in groups. Out of all this, the child will eventually acquire a realization of the type of civilization of which he is a part, the reasons for its origin and development, and the possibilities of its future.

A committee of teachers, with the close coöperation of the total staff, has indicated problems that relate to the integrating themes and to one or more of the basic functions of human living. It is intended that these problems be suggestive and in no sense prescribed. Teachers are expected to work with pupils in aiding them in defining their problems and interests in the area represented by the integrative theme and in setting up activities that would contribute to the solution of the problems raised. Following are several activities that relate to "Developing and Conserving Human Resources," one of the basic functions:¹

1. Visit industrial plants to observe safety devices.
2. List health precautions desirable on trips and outings.
3. Experiment with formation of molds; show bacteria growth and rate of growth under different temperatures.

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 33-35.

4. Discuss whether or not there are any safety hazards in or near the school; if so, write a letter to the Board of Education describing them.
5. Investigate to determine how scientific method aids the school to control disease in the building.
6. Make a survey of the home to discover the prevalence of use of patent medicines; then read what doctors say about them.
7. Investigate local methods of purifying the water supply.
8. Experiment with animals to show effects of improper food upon health and growth.

In this program in the upper elementary or junior-high-school grades, guidance and instruction are both handled by the same person and are closely related to each other. The teacher should have the assistance of a supervisor and a guidance specialist in planning the total program and in meeting the more difficult problems. In cases of more extreme disturbance, the special guidance worker may work directly with the pupil. The teacher should maintain a close relation to the diagnosis and treatment by the special guidance worker, so that he can deal wisely with the pupil in his class relations.

The building of programs of instruction around needs of students constitutes an important forward step. In helping students intelligently to attack their problems, instruction becomes concerned with the present life of the learner. Such a program requires greater emphasis than is ordinarily given to the discovery and definition of the interests, abilities, problems, and needs of the student. The activities of the classroom are determined in the light of these student characteristics. It should be remembered that the needs of students of a given maturity cannot be determined once for all and then assumed to be applicable to other student groups. The needs must be defined for each group. Student purposes take on more importance as they become definitely operative in the life of the individual. Consequently, when the basis of instruction is shifted from the subject-matter orientation to student needs, there is a more pressing need for the guidance service.

The problem of staff organization is a difficult one when instruction is based on actual situations and real problems, especially in the high school and the college where the training of teachers has involved heavy concentration in a limited subject area. As will be noted in greater detail later in this chapter, many of the most important problems cut across several fields and involve the use of materials ordinarily found in a number of subjects. Few teachers are broadly enough trained to deal adequately with these questions. They would gradually build

adequacy as they worked with students in attacking their problems, but their shortcomings present a real difficulty in introducing the program.

Several procedures can be suggested. They have been used in schools to good advantage. One involves the assignment of a teacher full time to a group of students. This teacher works with them in all the activities common to the group. He is assisted by specialists in those aspects where his own training and experience are least adequate. These 'coöperators' help to give breadth to the program and insure a comprehensive treatment of the different problems. The continuing or 'home' teacher serves as adviser as well as instructor. This method of organization insures a unity and a continuity in the experiences of students. This teacher-counselor ordinarily stays with a group of students during a period of years. In some schools this core course occupies half the time of the students; the remainder is devoted to courses elected because of special interests.

A second approach involves coöperative planning of the activities for a semester or a year by the teachers in the different fields, but retains separate instruction by the different teachers. The teachers of English, science, social studies, and art can achieve a considerable amount of coördination by planning coöperatively rather than by each planning the activities of his course without regard to what students are doing in the other courses. This approach has the objection of requiring the division of the treatment of a problem according to subject lines. It does not permit the amount of fusion possible in the first approach. However, in schools where it does not at the time seem desirable or possible to discard the division of subject matter, this method is a promising first step.

A third arrangement opens up possibility for collaboration of several teachers in planning the instruction and for some coöperation in teaching. A teacher with training in English and social studies might be teamed with a teacher trained in mathematics and science. These two teachers could be responsible for two periods of instruction for each of two groups of students. When teacher A has the first group, teacher B would have the second group. Whenever it seemed desirable, the two groups could be combined and the two teachers could coöperate in the supervision of the activities of the total group. Such a program would, of course, require a room large enough to accommodate a group of from sixty to eighty students.

This same idea could be developed further for three groups of

students; for example, by the participation of three teachers who had had special training in English, social studies, and science. The program would fill the time of teachers and students for a three-period interval. The three groups could be assembled as one group during any of the three periods. Also, any project could be undertaken that would require three consecutive hours without interfering with the orderly running of the school.

IV. ADAPTATION TO STUDENT NEEDS MADE BETTER IN BROAD, THAN IN NARROW, COURSES

Some adjustment can be made by the teacher to the needs of students in the most narrow courses. The experiences and interests of students can be noted and problems of students that relate to the content of the course can be attacked. The topics planned for the course can be changed and their order of treatment modified in light of the needs of the student group. The chief limitation of the narrow course lies in its failure to comprehend most of the real problems of students. Most life problems have many aspects. When each aspect is treated in a separate course, the teacher and the student are limited in the adequacy of their treatment of the problems. Several problems will be described briefly to illustrate.

The problems of the consumer draw upon the subject matter of a variety of fields. Chemistry and physics are used in the testing of the claims of advertisements and of salesmen. Mathematics is used in connection with the quantitative phase of the analytical process used in the attack upon the problem. Any adequate protection of the consumer involves coöperative social action, either through legislation or consumer coöperatives. Economics, sociology, political science, and history will all be drawn upon in an adequate treatment of nearly any major problem. Teachers of home economics and of art make reasonable claims for the pertinence of the materials with which they deal. A comprehensive treatment of the problems of buying or of the use of income thus forces one to utilize the content of many subjects. When the subject area is extended, teachers are able to deal broadly with problems of life rather than being restricted to the teaching of narrower units of subject matter that, it is assumed, students will later combine with other units secured in other courses to solve their problems.

A second illustration may make the matter clearer. Soil erosion is claiming the attention of the American people in a dramatic way, and students in secondary schools and colleges, especially those living

in the areas directly affected, might appropriately give attention to it. In the dust bowl, the movement of the top soil in clouds of dust, the winter and spring floods of the Mississippi and its tributaries, and the dire prediction of army engineers that continuation of the present process will soon produce a non-productive, barren region in the Mississippi Valley have combined to point to the need of constructive social action to conserve the resources of the Mississippi Valley. What is the nature of this problem and what action is promising? To answer such questions requires the student to use many subjects; biology, chemistry, economics, political science, sociology, history, all must be used if the grasp of the problem is to be adequate to give a dependable guide to social action. What are the effects of plant growth on the soil? What connection is there between the floods and the clearing of the forests? Is soil being cultivated that should be covered with grazing grass? Can this problem be met by the local city, county, or state, or must it be attacked by the federal government? What shift may this require in our conception of the appropriate functions of the states and the federal government? What are the social and cultural effects of the life of adults and children in the deteriorating regions? What are the costs involved in an adequate program? How shall this cost be met if it is justified?

The advantages of the broader subject areas are being recognized in many educational institutions. History, civics, geography have been replaced by social studies; similarly, chemistry, botany, zoology and physics have been combined into general science. In many schools various specialized shops have been combined into a general shop. In some schools, the major subject areas have been combined to make a still broader teaching field. The social studies and English have been combined, as have science and mathematics. Reference earlier in this chapter to the core course indicated a still further move in broadening the scope of the area of instruction. All subject fields are drawn upon in these core courses to help students study their problems.

The guidance problem is somewhat different for the narrow than for the broad courses. All students take the core course. The activities of this course provide the basis for the definition of the problems and goals to be considered in the core course itself, and for the selection of the elective courses that supplement the core course in the program of an individual student. The guidance problem is as important for the core-course arrangement as for the more narrow courses. The guidance service is chiefly outside of the narrow course and of the different courses

administered by some person other than the teachers. In the core course, the guidance activities constitute an integral part of the work, and they lead informally to the training activities in the course. The core-course teacher-counselor assists students in their selection of elective subjects.

When the core course is not used, but the narrow courses are combined into larger areas, there still remains the problem of student selection of the areas of training that relate to his problems and goals. The guidance service will aid him in making these choices. In addition to the adaptation to needs thus made possible, there may be much adjustment to students' problems in shaping the activities of the courses.

In some situations all the large area courses are taken by students in each of the years they are in school. Under such conditions, the guidance problem is essentially the same as it is under the core-course arrangement. The chief difference between this plan and the core course is the breaking of the core experiences into three, four, or five major groupings for the purpose of instruction. The guidance service is weakened by the division, as there is no one person to play the rôle of the core teacher-counselor and the instructional activities cannot flow so directly between the guidance activities defining the goals and needs of students and the various instructional units.

V. STUDENT NEEDS AND INSTRUCTION

Some of the most important needs of students are not closely related to subject matter, as generally considered. One student may be shy, retiring, and unsuccessful in his social relationships; he may not have learned how to make friends or he may have certain characteristics that other children do not like. Another student may be unhappy, depressed, and emotionally unstable. A third may be aggressive and active and likely to experience difficulty when his energy is so directed that he does not win social approval. Failure will be the lot of some students and assistance to them in analyzing their experiences, in reconstructing their program, and in achieving success becomes of paramount importance. These and other personal needs should be identified and satisfied. They may be of equal or greater importance than the more intellectual problems dealt with in the preceding section. The teacher's treatment of students should be as much in terms of the effects on the development of their personalities as on the knowledge they acquire. The identification, analysis, and adjustment to these personal needs constitute an important phase of the guidance service.

VI. REQUIRED COURSES AND GUIDANCE

Educational institutions have generally required certain courses of all students at each educational level. These requirements were made on the assumption that there was a certain stock of knowledge and a certain set of skills that all educated people should possess. Not infrequently, the content of these courses was definitely set in advance and not determined by the interests and problems of students. This administrative procedure in securing a recognition of important fields of study has considerable justification if there does not exist a well-developed program of guidance. We think that this procedure is a crude form of control of the learning activities that should be eliminated as more adequate methods can be introduced.

The guidance service adequately developed should provide a more satisfactory basis for a student to plan his educational program than that represented by administrative prescription. Uniform prescription of certain studies at a particular time does not allow sufficient adjustment to individual differences. Also, the taking of subjects under compulsion often leads to a negative attitude on the part of students. A student's planning of his program of study, with the help of an able counselor, is more satisfactory. It insures recognition of his major needs. In addition, the placing of responsibility for planning the educational program directly upon the student causes him to consider his educational objectives and the activities of the institution that will aid him in achieving his goals. As guidance programs are more fully developed, it is probable that less use will be made of administrative prescription in securing recognition of important personal and social problems in the educational programs of students.

VII. GUIDANCE AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

The critical observer of the program of many educational institutions will be impressed with the degree of separation obtaining between the program of instruction and the program of guidance. The guidance staff carry on activities designed to discover the characteristics and needs of the student and to assist him in the planning of his life and his program of education. The course offerings of the institution are frequently not analyzed to discover whether or not the existing courses serve the needs of students, whether or not other courses might be appropriately added to the program, whether or not existing courses might be modified to make them more effective. The discovery of student

needs may not be entirely without value in itself, but the value is certainly limited if the training activities are not related to the discovered needs.

Teachers, guidance specialists, and administrators should collaborate in the planning of a total educational program that represents the best coöperatively developed conception the staff can formulate. Through this coöperative study the understandings of all participants should be extended. The interests, goals, and needs of students being served constitute the most promising points of departure in any such program of coöperative study. The guidance staff should be of special help in interpreting the characteristics and needs of students.

An educational program that has operated a long time on the basis of teaching organized bodies of subject matter cannot suddenly be shifted to a basically different orientation. Teachers have to learn to approach their problems differently. Some of the concepts interpreted as reflecting a high level of efficiency must be reconsidered. In the college and university, especially, the pressure for a type of high scholarship functions as a block to transition to a more functional teaching. As teachers come to see their work in terms of the activity and program of students, with a recognition of the use that students make of subject matter in their attempts to grapple with their problems, gradual shift in practice can be expected. Until there is a development of improved insight, teachers can be expected to resist attempts of guidance workers and administrators to modify classroom practices.

The description of the activities in core courses has shown how the instructional activities can grow naturally out of goals, interests, and needs of students. It is this general approach that is needed even when the individual instructor is handling a course in his field of specialization. It will not be possible for him to carry the process to the same limits, but much can be done. Also, the teacher should be concerned with all aspects of the student's development and not limit his attention to knowledge. In most faculties one will find individuals who see the possibilities and who are striving to adapt their instruction. Through encouragement of these pioneers on the faculty, through participation in general discussion and study by faculty groups, and through the operation of an effective program of work with students, the guidance staff can be of real assistance in the development of a more effective program. The possibilities for achieving a unified program are greatly enhanced if the administrative head of the institution has a grasp of the total problem.

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CHAPTER X

THE STAFF NEEDED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EFFECTIVE GUIDANCE SERVICE

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I. INTRODUCTION

The foregoing chapters have indicated the objectives sought and some of the services to be provided in an effective guidance program in an educational institution. The present chapter considers the staff needed to achieve these objectives and render these services.

The developmental approach to the guidance of an individual implies a service beginning even before he enters his first school, continuing during his stay in educational institutions, and following him after he leaves. This requires a staff prepared to give guidance services at all educational levels — elementary, secondary, and college — and in all types of institutions — academic, vocational, continuation, technical, trade, commercial. In most institutions three sets of workers are likely to be involved: (1) teachers, functioning in the classroom and home room and as extra-curricular sponsors, and all others who have frequent contact with youth; (2) leaders in guidance who stimulate, coördinate, and supplement the work of the first group, variously called principals, supervisors, school counselors, class advisers, deans, directors of guidance; and (3) specialists in certain areas of guidance, as in medicine, psychiatry, psychology, social work, vocational choice and placement. The presence and the number of such specialists differs with the level and type of educational institution. A fourth group of guidance workers will be found outside the institution in the community. This group is made up of health agencies, such as hospitals and clinics, social agencies, scholarship associations, service clubs, parent-teacher groups, employment agencies, recreation departments, fraternal orders, legal agencies, agricultural societies, and character-building agencies, as well as many persons not connected with the schools who are glad to help

when called upon. Each of these groups of workers has definite contributions to make to the accomplishment of the guidance task.

II. THE GUIDANCE RÔLE OF THE TEACHER

1. Guidance Essential to the Work of the Effective Teacher

Whether a teacher finds himself in a traditional or in a newer type school, guidance is necessary to his own success as well as to that of the child. The ability of an instructor to teach any student the best predetermined course of study with even a moderate degree of success depends upon that student's condition of health and the effectiveness of his adjustment, mental and emotional, to the school, to the teacher, to his classmates, and to other factors in his environment. The finest teaching will not 'take' if these adjustments have not been successfully made, and herein lies one of the major functions of guidance. In the new-type school, as suggested in Chapter I, the pupil's learning experience grows out of his needs, desires, and purposes, all of which guidance seeks to help him to discover. Guidance, then, is essential to the work of the effective teacher, and the teacher is essential to the successful discharge of the guidance function. The rôle of the teacher, however, will vary with the type of educational institution and the educational philosophy implicit in its practice.

2. Variation in the Rôle of the Teacher

The rôle of the teacher in the one-room rural school is obviously different from that of the teacher in the highly departmentalized city school. In the rural school the teacher often knows not only every child in school, but something also about his family, his brothers and sisters, and the probable length of his schooling. In the modern large city high school many teachers know little more about most of their pupils than their names. The rural teacher is more nearly able to see the 'whole child' as he recognizes, for example, that his weakness in geography is counterbalanced by his strength in arithmetic. Since the departmental teacher usually teaches only one subject, he sees but a 'fraction' of the child.

In the one-room school, if he stays long enough, the teacher will be able to appreciate better the developmental approach to child study as he watches the progress of the child from year to year. Rarely does an elementary-school teacher in a large school have the opportunity of studying the development of students for more than one year or two years.

On the other hand, the rural teacher, frequently inexperienced and less adequately trained than the city teacher, has fewer agencies to help him guide children. It is rare good fortune if there is a nurse, a psychologist, or a vocational counselor on the county staff. At most only a few community resources, such as the Grange, the Agricultural Society, and Four-H clubs, are available. In the large city school help may come from a guidance department, dean or counselor within the school, physicians, nurses, psychologists, and social workers in the central office, as well as from many community resources.

In the typical high school, with an enrollment of less than two hundred pupils, the part played by the teacher will be affected by the fact that it is seldom possible to employ a counselor or a specialist of any sort. In such instances the teacher must depend almost entirely on the principal for leadership and help in the guidance of children. He, in turn, will do well to enlist the aid, voluntary if financial resources are not available, of any competent specialists who may be found in local or neighboring communities.

It is conceivable that there may be some schools in which no teacher is qualified to assume any guidance function. In the interests of the children it may be necessary in this event to find a way to employ a teacher-counselor to begin the work of re-educating the teachers and counseling the children.

The rôle of the teacher is also influenced by the type of institution in which he is employed. The guidance rôle of the teacher in a technical high school may be somewhat different from that of an instructor in an academic school, just as that of a professor in a medical school may be different from that of one in a liberal arts college.

Another general type of difference in the guidance rôle of teachers hinges on the educational philosophy upon which the school is founded.

If the board of education and the school staff conceive of education as a set of formal tasks, the teacher's rôle will be somewhat different from that in a school in which education is conceived of as a process wherein the pupil is a more active agent. Under the former view the teacher's main task is to impart knowledge and skill, and guidance is relatively extraneous to the teaching process.

If the second view is adopted, each pupil is regarded as an investigator, with certain curiosities to appease, certain problems to solve, certain satisfactions to be gained. From this point of view each person is a 'going concern,' not one who must be prodded to learn, but a 'self-starter.' He turns to various agencies in the community — school, li-

brary, clubs, church, employment — to help him in the pursuit of his investigations. The function of teachers is to answer his questions or to suggest sources to which he may refer for a more satisfactory solution to his problems. Subtly teachers guide his investigation and suggest more worthwhile avenues for his exploration. They seek to assist him to become progressively more able to guide himself. This view appears to be more compatible with the interpretation given by many educators to recent findings in biology and psychology. In such a school situation, guidance is an integral part of the teaching-learning process. Whether the teacher finds himself in a traditional or in a more liberal institution will, then, influence his rôle in the guidance process.

3. Importance of the Teacher

The strategic importance of persons who have frequent and close contacts with human beings for guidance purposes is becoming increasingly recognized. If it is true that experience is the greatest vehicle for learning, then those who have the power to control our experiences have great control over the type of person that we may become. Teachers, parents, and our close associates stand in this position of influence. Specialists in guidance acknowledge the limitations imposed upon their work when the coöperation of the teacher and parent cannot be obtained. Thus Williams wrote:

The psychiatrist, the psychologist, the psychiatric social worker are mere drops in the bucket and always will be nothing but mere drops in the bucket. They can assist, but the real solution will come when parents are trained.¹

Even such strong advocates of the clinical method and the centralized counseling bureau as Williamson and Darley agree that

In the last analysis, instructors have the greatest contact with students. Until this contact is leavened with positive attention to the individuality of each student in the group, personnel work will lack complete effectiveness, and instruction will miss an opportunity for more effective education.²

Classroom teachers must assume much responsibility for guidance, since it is to them that young people often carry their problems. In

¹ Frankwood E. Williams. "Every child — how he keeps his mental health." *Annals of the American Academy*, 121: September, 1925, 180.

² E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley. *Student Personnel Work*. P. 74. (McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York, 1937)

1936 an inquiry ¹ was made of 2,698 secondary-school students, members of thirteen junior and senior high schools located in various parts of the country. A large number of these boys and girls reported that their classroom teachers helped them most with their problems.

4. The Teacher's Rôle as a Student of Students

Of the several ways by which teachers in all types of institutions may play a significant rôle in the realization of the objectives of guidance we may mention, first, their studying of their own pupils. They have an obvious opportunity to observe and study them through classroom, home room, playground, extra-curricular, and social contacts. The significance of this contribution lies in the fact that the teacher has the opportunity to observe the individual in a more or less natural situation over a considerable length of time. When a child is withdrawn from his environment and taken to a clinic for study, the clinician does not, in fact, see the same child as does the teacher who sees him in a more usual situation. There is also the danger that, even if a trained observer sees him in his own environment, he may not really understand the child if he observes him only four or five times instead of over a longer period.

This study of individual differences by the classroom teacher that we are advocating should reveal the "real problems, perplexities, desires, and needs" of his pupils that are fundamental to any sound instructional program. The teacher needs to find out the condition of the child's health, to understand the child's emotional reactions and learn why he acts as he does, to make sure that he is happily adjusted to himself, to understand the child's social development, his place in his group. He needs to find and develop new interests of the child, to watch for signs of aptitude and to note abilities, each of which is important for educational, recreational, and vocational planning. Further, he needs to be able to detect signs of maladjustment and to know when to refer them to the attention of more competent guidance specialists. Of course, these activities must eventuate in helping the young person to gain more insight into his own interests, needs, and problems, and to become progressively more able to deal effectively with them.

These tasks are responsibilities of all teachers in their dealings with all children, but in a traditional secondary school they are more likely to be discharged, if at all, by teachers for their home-room groups. Re-

¹ Clifford E. Erickson. *The Homeroom in Secondary Education*. (Doctoral Dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1937)

cent studies have shown that by far the most common way of drawing all teachers into guidance work was as group advisers in the home room, roll-call room, or session room. The importance of home-room teachers for guidance, then, cannot be ignored. Functioning in this capacity, they are not usually under any obligation to teach their special charges any subject in the customary sense. They see what it is fashionable to term 'whole children' and their activities tend to restore the lost personal touch caused by excessive departmentalization. They become, in fact, 'school parents' of the children.

The sponsor of an 'extra-curricular' activity in a traditional school has some advantage over the average classroom teacher because the students frequently have elected to become participants in the activity, and because the activities are more natural in organization and control than are those of the conventional classroom. High-school and college athletes perform substantially the same feats as professional athletes. The school paper in many schools is a real newspaper. The school orchestra does the same things as an orchestra composed of professional musicians. These are exploratory experiences of the finest type and afford opportunity to judge an individual's interest and ability in a particular field under conditions that are fairly close to genuine. Here, also, come to light the student's social and emotional qualities, which are not often brought to view in the typical classroom. These life-like characteristics of so-called 'extra-curricular activities' are increasingly being brought into the regular curriculum, so that in many classrooms today education is becoming more and more like life.

Teachers, in thus seeking to 'learn' their students, may wish to refer to the several methods of appraising individuals that are explained in Chapters II and III. No one method can be employed exclusively in obtaining an understanding of a person. The best teachers know their children best. At the same time, they also have a further obligation; namely, to make available such information as they have that may be of use to the pupil and to others who may wish to help him. Anecdotal reports, cumulative records, rating scales, and other devices may be used in preserving these data.

5. The Helping Rôle of the Teacher

Some would characterize the rôle of the teacher in studying students that has just been described as 'diagnosis' and apply to his second guidance rôle the terms 'treatment' or 'therapy.' Whether or not such terminology, borrowed from the field of social work and medi-

cine, should be employed, it seems clear that, after the needs of students have been identified, something should be done about them. Four ways were mentioned in Chapter VII in which guidance may function in personality development. In each of these ways, the teacher has a part to play, as will now be noted.

First, teachers may change the attitudes of other teachers, parents, other members of the family, and other children toward the child. Most of all, teachers should not forget that their personality and practices are, so far as the individual in school is concerned, perhaps the most important factors. Well-adjusted teachers employing in the classroom the best principles of mental hygiene are prerequisites to a favorable learning situation.

Second, teachers also have the opportunity to manipulate the experiences of students. In a traditional school, the teacher may select subject matter that will have significance for certain groups of students. He may set up social situations that will satisfy basic urges of certain individuals. In a newer type school, as explained in Chapter I, a pupil's learning experiences grow out of his needs, desires, and purposes. The really lasting, significant things that happen to a person do not usually occur during an hour spent in a counselor's office; rather, they come as the result of persistent, recurring exposure to the everyday experiences that mold and develop human life. Teachers and parents have the rare opportunity of modifying these experiences.

Third, teachers have traditionally aided children in the acquisition of knowledge, but this knowledge has often had no meaning to students and has come to them at a time when it met no special needs. In the ideal program briefly sketched in Chapter I this knowledge and information would come to the individual as a result of needs and purposes of his own. Presumably the teacher will assist in locating these needs, in formulating the purposes, and in achieving the objectives. Thus, information and knowledge come to the student in response to his need for them in preparation for making some choice or for carrying on an activity already chosen. The teacher, it is important to note, cannot be divorced from the process. Similarly, the teacher is also the catalytic agent in helping the person to acquire skills. These skills, it will be remembered, are not only mental and physical, but social as well. Here, again, the person who is in intimate contact with young people may aid by setting the stage, by counseling, and by encouraging.

Fourth, the teacher has the opportunity to deal with the student directly, to help him to understand himself and acquire such insight

as will permit him to become more able to guide himself in relation to present or developing situations. Self-direction is the goal. The degree to which effort will be expended upon the situation and upon the individual is likely to vary somewhat with the age of the student. With younger children a larger amount of effort must be spent on the situation, but as children grow older, more work may be done with them directly. In no case should either the individual or the social approach be ignored.

It is in this matter of teachers working with children directly that some disagreement among and between theorists and practitioners is encountered. Certainly no one who believes that adults influence young people would deny the teacher any direct approach to children; on the other hand, no one who understands the complicated mechanisms that make up human adjustment would advocate that every teacher should attempt to tinker with them. It becomes, then, a question of when and where the teacher should deal with the pupil directly, and thus a matter of educating the teacher as to when he should attempt to work with the person and when he should invite the assistance of a more competent guidance specialist. This task of educating the teacher, we shall see presently to be one of the prime tasks of the specialist. If, however, teachers seek the help of experts only with maladjusted students, the usefulness of such specialists will be sharply limited. If they are to be really effective in educating teachers, they must have frequent and close contact with classroom situations in which no marked abnormality is involved.

These guidance rôles, the reader is reminded, are the work of all teachers at all educational levels and in all types of institutions, in the interest of all pupils — not merely the work of a single person or of a group of persons specifically trained to deal with such matters as vocational counseling, emotional adjustments, educational planning, and so-called ‘problem cases.’

III. THE RÔLE OF THE GUIDANCE LEADER

1. Guidance Leaders Should Assist Teachers

If all teachers were adequately trained to a level desirable for a counselor, there would be less need for a guidance leader in a school, though some need would remain, some person would still be required to coördinate the efforts of all teachers and to see that the needs of all young people were met.

Various titles have been used to designate this worker — adviser,

counselor, dean, director, personnel worker, sponsor — often with some qualifying adjective. 'Counselor' seems to be the most popular title.¹

2. Variation in the Rôle of the Guidance Leader

The rôle of the guidance leader varies with the type of institution and the educational philosophy that undergirds its work. In the vocational school the guidance leader is likely to become more nearly a vocational counselor, though even in that type of school his function should probably be considered more broadly. In the small school and the undepartmentalized elementary school the principal is likely to assume this responsibility of leadership. While the principal supervises the entire educational program of the traditional large departmentalized elementary and secondary schools, it is expedient to employ or to relieve members of the staff for part time or full time to give special direction to guidance and personnel work. In an investigation² conducted in 1935 it was found that in ninety-one of 114 large junior and senior high schools some person or persons, in addition to the regular teachers, had been assigned the task of giving special direction to this work, and ninety-one of 101 secondary-school principals agreed that some kind of definite allocation of responsibility was desirable.

In Chapter IV, preference was expressed for a 'teacher-counselor,' a person keeping in intimate touch with classroom teaching by acting as both teacher and counselor. Though the amount and character of his leadership may vary, the 'teacher-counselor' must also be thought of as a guidance leader. Under the plan in operation in the schools of Providence, Rhode Island, the head of the guidance department coordinates the work of six teachers or class counselors and performs other supervisory and administrative functions concerned with the guidance program. At the same time each class counselor coordinates the work of the home-room teachers of his grade. Thus, the functions of counselors may vary somewhat, but they are, nevertheless, guidance leaders.

If teachers in the schools of tomorrow effectively discharge the rôle already described in this chapter, it is clear that principals and superintendents will become much more active leaders in the guidance field than they are at present. Since the emphasis will be placed on human needs rather than on subject requirements, some of our present subject

¹ Francis C. Rosecrance. "Organization and Administration of Guidance and Personnel Services in Large City School Systems." (Doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, Illinois, 1936)

² Francis C. Rosecrance, *op. cit.*

supervisors and department heads will also have a larger part in this leadership. This is not to suggest, however, that there will be no need for specialists in certain fields of knowledge.

3. The Educative Rôle of the Guidance Leader

The chief function of guidance leadership is to help teachers in solving their own problems in the guidance of children rather than to relieve teachers of these problems. Although the counselor will sometimes take over the handling of certain difficult problems, this is distinctly a secondary function. The guidance leader must be equipped to counsel and guide teachers in performing the functions already listed as pertinent to their work. He must be more skilled than they in the methods of studying children; he must possess greater knowledge of how to change attitudes; he must have wider experience and more resourcefulness in suggesting the type of experiences most needed by different pupils; he must know how to aid the teacher in his guiding of pupils in acquiring insight into their own needs.

As the teacher is called upon to cope with a wide range of problems, even more so must the guidance leader be prepared to deal with a similar range. That this is expected of such leaders in guidance is indicated by investigations of the duties and responsibilities of one hundred selected deans of girls in high schools,¹ of 347 counselors and advisers,² and 394 women deans in colleges and universities.³ These studies reveal that, in general, guidance leaders were expected to give aid in matters involving health, personality, behavior, scholastic success, and recreational, vocational, and educational plans. The guidance leader in the school or in the central office of a city or county school system must be able to help the teacher become able to aid students in solving just such problems. That counselors and advisers have not always in practice regarded this as their chief function is indicated by the criticism of two superintendents of schools, who wrote: "A good many people feel that the teachers have washed their hands of the job," and "There has been a tendency for some classroom teachers to with-

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang. *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High Schools*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1929)

² Francis C. Rosecrance, *op. cit.*

³ Jane L. Jones. *A Personnel Study of Women Deans in Colleges and Universities*. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University: New York, 1928)

draw from all responsibility in pupil guidance." In defense of counselors in general it should be said that in many school systems they have been given neither the opportunity to approach their responsibilities from the point of view here advocated nor administrative support if they did so. Nevertheless, any activities on the part of the leader in guidance that result in making teachers less able to guide children, rather than more able, are unsound.

4. The Administrative Rôle of the Guidance Leader

In addition to the educative responsibility just mentioned, the guidance leader probably must also assume an administrative rôle. He must see to it that all students are reached, that the work of all functionaries, teachers, and specialists is coördinated, that unnecessary overlapping is eliminated, and that the work is organized and integrated. Further, he must make sure that the supporting specialists are wisely used and that necessary research activities are initiated to provide the factual basis for improving the work. Such administrative functions he must not perform in an autocratic, dictatorial fashion; that would be to negate in practice most of the basic concepts of guidance.

A word of caution should probably be expressed here against making the office of the guidance leader a 'dumping ground' for a multitude of administrative tasks, many of which have little or no direct relationship to the guidance of youth.

5. The Rôle of the Guidance Leader as Liaison Officer

Finally, the guidance leader will find it necessary to become the point of contact, not only for coöperation between teachers within the school, but also between teachers and agencies and persons outside the school. In many instances the guidance leader will coöperate with parent groups, with the various types of community agencies listed earlier in this chapter, with employer and labor groups, with other schools from which and to which students come and go, with curricular or other school committees, and with representatives of city, county, state, and regional educational administrators interested in this field.

It is probably too sweeping a generalization to say that the extent and effectiveness of the guidance that young people receive in educational institutions is dependent upon the amount and character of guidance leadership provided, but much available evidence would support such a statement.

IV. THE RÔLE OF THE GUIDANCE SPECIALIST

1. Specialists Supplement the Generalists

It has been pointed out that teachers and guidance leaders have been called upon to be 'generalists' attempting to deal with a wide range of problems. Naturally it is impossible for one person to be expert in medicine, knowledge of vocational trends and employment, psychological examining, social work, psychiatry, and other related disciplines. Hence, both general 'practitioners' and specialists are indispensable to an adequate guidance service. Moreover, as educational programs become better geared to the needs of young people, and as school administrators become properly sensitive to such needs, more specialists are likely to be employed. Psychologists, visiting teachers, physicians, and nurses carry on most of their work in the elementary school, while personnel officers and vocational guidance and placement workers are more often found at the secondary and college levels. Often in small schools or rural communities none of these specialists is available. In the traditional school system specialists are likely to accept each case referred to them, and request a minimal amount of coöperation; in the newer school, specialists are more likely to work through the teacher concerned in the case and to take it out of his hands only as a last resort.

2. The General Rôles of Guidance Specialists

In general, supporting specialists should discharge three functions: first, educating teachers, guidance leaders, and other members of the staff of the school system; second, acting as 'consultant' to teachers, guidance leaders, and other specialists; and third, taking over some cases and dealing directly with them. A few words about these three phases of work:

a. Educating Teachers. The prime function of such experts is one of education — training teachers and guidance leaders in understanding and handling those problems that seem to require the deeper insights and skills that specialists possess. Just as it is the function of the teacher to help the youngster become more able to manage himself wisely, so it is the function of the psychologist, psychiatrist, vocational expert, and others to make teachers more competent to guide children in each of these specialized fields.

It is the problem of the specialist, then, to make the teacher understand when the teacher himself should attempt to handle the case and

when he should refer it to the skilled technician for diagnosis and treatment. The specialist will find that no fixed rule can be given to the teacher, who, as he becomes more competent, will find less necessity for calling in the specialist. It is recognized that this view is likely to encounter opposition from some practicing physicians, psychologists, vocational guidance experts, psychiatrists, and other specialists who abhor attempts by 'amateurs' to 'dabble' in professional fields. On the other hand, Cox and Langfitt say:

. . . every administrative act which relieves or deprives the classroom teacher of responsibility for human adjustments among his pupils makes the final condition worse than the first. The teachers of academic subjects are thereby reduced to task-assigners and recitation-hearers and achievement-testers of academic instruction.¹

Specialists must accept the task of educating teachers in their specialty.

b. Acting as Consultants. The second function of the supporting specialist is to act as 'consultant' to teachers, guidance leaders, and other specialists with whom he must coöperate. Consultation is often carried on in a clinic or staff conference. Conferring with teachers is one means of helping them to guide children instead of relieving them of this guidance responsibility. Naturally, teachers turn first to the guidance leader in the building, but if he is unable to give adequate help, joint application is made to the specialist, who helps them to think the problem through and plan the next steps. Each time a teacher handles a case successfully, he adds to his resourcefulness for dealing with other cases.

c. Handling Cases Directly. The third function of the guidance specialist is to take over some cases and deal directly with them. The necessities of the situation often require this to be done. Some young people have become so involved in difficulties that probing tends only to make matters worse; some teachers are unqualified to guide children; some are more competent in a limited portion of the field only; some problems are too difficult for the guidance leaders. These and many other reasons are sufficient warrant for the taking over of a case by a specialist.

¹ P. W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt. *High School Administration and Supervision*. P. 428. (American Book Company: New York, 1934)

3. The Specific Rôles of Guidance Specialists

The specific nature of the work of most guidance specialists requires little explanation. The differences between the rôles of physicians, dentists, nurses, dental hygienists, speech specialists, vocational counselors, and placement workers become evident from their titles. Some overlapping is inevitable; thus the difference between the work of the school psychologist and the visiting teacher is not always so clear, since both deal with children who are not adjusting. Probably, however, the difference is not so much in the kind of work as in the method of approach, that of the psychologist being basically one of psychological and educational testing and that of the visiting teacher, the technique of social investigation. The synthesis of these activities with that of medical examination and psychiatric study is best represented in the child-guidance or mental-hygiene clinic in which psychologist, psychiatrist, and social worker join forces in studying the individual.

Reference was made earlier to a fourth group of guidance workers located in the community. To meet the physical needs of some children, the assistance of speech clinics, children's hospitals, private physicians, service clubs, and social agencies will be required. To provide for the social and emotional needs of youth, the coöperation of recreational agencies, boys' and girls' character-building agencies, mental-hygiene clinics, and similar organizations will be needed. To give occupational guidance, contacts with employers and employees will be necessary. In other words, coöperation with many agencies outside the school is essential for efficiency.

V. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE STAFF NEEDED FOR GUIDANCE

1. Fundamental Principles of Organization

The type of organization necessary to render an effective guidance service may well vary with the school, but it should be recognized as of major importance. No complete and final plan of organization can be adopted in a given system; it must be modified to fit the needs, resources, facilities, and staff at hand. Speaking generally, the size and purposes of the institution, the financial resources of the community, and the interests of parents and citizens need to be taken into consideration in formulating a plan. More specifically, the plan should take into account the following fundamentals:

1. The guidance service must arise out of the interests, needs, and purposes of the students.

2. The guidance service should be continuous and should serve all youth. Its effectiveness is enhanced if it begins early in the life of the child. Guidance for individuals after they leave school is as truly a social function as that given in school.

3. It should be organized not only to deal with problems after they arise, but also to prevent them from arising

4. It should provide for *all* phases of individual study, including the physical, mental, emotional, social, recreational, educational, and the vocational.

5. It must enlist the interest, ability, and effort of every member of the staff — superintendent, supervisors, principals, teachers, counselors, deans, boys' and girls' advisers, roster-makers, directors of clubs, student-government advisers, registrars, librarians, attendance officers, as well as supporting specialists in psychology, psychiatry, and social work, tests and measurements, medicine, occupational research, and employment.

6. The guidance of each pupil should not be haphazard and unrelated, but purposeful, unified, and coordinated.

7. The guidance service must progressively make all concerned more able to guide themselves.

2. Organization of the Staff within a School Unit

In Chapter I a proposed ideal guidance program was presented and some of the staff relationships therein were described. Under this scheme a core-teacher-counselor would be the chief guide of a group of thirty or forty boys and girls over possibly a three-year or four-year period. He would seek to understand the youth better, would visit the homes, do individual counseling, help the child to choose experiences appropriate to his needs, help other teachers to see him as a whole, and discharge other functions listed as a part of the guidance rôle of the teacher. What is now called 'group guidance' would be the core of a curriculum designed to meet the functional needs of the individual. Even under this plan, however, there would be a need for a guidance leader. In small schools the principal might assume this function; in larger schools he might delegate the active discharge of this responsibility to another member of the staff. In either event he would be expected to carry on an educative function, an administrative function, and a coöperative function.

Pending the integration of the guidance and instructional programs outlined in Chapter I, the group-leader plan, sometimes called the class-counselor system,¹ seems to be a desirable one in both elementary and

¹ For a more extended discussion of the class-counselor plan, see Richard D. Allen, *Organization and Supervision of Guidance*. Pp. 3-18. (Inor Publishing Company: New York, 1934)

secondary schools. Each group leader does some teaching, dealing preferably with the type of problem described in Chapter V, and yet he has time allotted to work with the students and teachers of a given group. The amount of time and the number of group leaders needed to discharge the function of guidance leadership varies, of course, with the size of the school. Under this plan the group leader works with committees of teachers, home-room sponsors, and pupils. He promotes and coördinates the guidance of his group of students over at least a three-year period or, as in some schools, during the pupils' attendance at the institution. The principal or a counselor usually seeks to co-ordinate and improve the work of the group leaders, as well as that of all other staff members.

At the college level two general types of advisory systems may be found.¹ Under one plan every student is assigned to a faculty counselor who helps him either throughout his college career or until he has elected a major field, when a member of his major department may become the adviser. Under the other system a relatively few administrative or personnel officers advise all of the students throughout their academic careers. Neither of these plans is entirely satisfactory.²

In the newer experiments on the college level attempts are being made to knit these two systems together. Moreover, the Commission on Reorganization of the American College Personnel Association says:

Beyond this coöperative relationship between instructors and personnel workers must be emphasized the philosophy that instructors perform such fundamental counseling and should be encouraged to do even more. Common to the aims of both good instruction and good personnel work is the optimum development of the individual student to the end of personal growth and happiness and social effectiveness.³

In a number of institutions, the services of personnel workers acting as guidance leaders and of faculty members are supplemented by the expert help of physicians, psychiatrists, vocational counselors, placement workers, and other specialists. Thus the three sets of guidance

¹ Donfred H. Gardner. *Student Personnel Service*. Pp. 75-77. (University of Chicago Press: Chicago, 1936)

² Donfred H. Gardner, *op. cit.*

³ *A Charter for the American College Personnel Association*. (Mimeographed material issued by the Reorganization Commission, C. Gilbert Wrenn, Chairman, University of Minnesota, 1937)

workers discussed earlier in the chapter are coöperatively engaged in a counseling program at the college level.

3. Organization within a Larger Administrative Unit

It will be noted that, except at the college level, the suggested intra-school staff organization contained no provision for supporting specialists. Only in the largest schools or in those with strong financial resources is it usually possible for a single school to hire them, and such employment is likely to be on a part-time basis. To secure any specialized help at all many schools must now depend on such makeshifts as a counselor serving part-time as a placement officer or on the coöperation of private agencies and individuals.

Whatever the size of school or school system, every educational institution should have some way to secure the services of supporting specialists. In the larger cities they are often found on the central office staff of the superintendent of schools. In smaller cities or rural areas they may be located in the office of the county superintendent or in that of the administrator of some other combination of districts sufficiently large to finance such a staff.

This central office department should include one or more specialists in each of the following divisions: psychological and psychiatric; vocational guidance and placement; attendance, visiting teacher, and psychiatric social work; and school health. The Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence¹ projected a very similar organization. Thirty-nine of fifty-five (seventy-one percent) large-city school superintendents endorsed it; only six opposed the plan outright.² Not only has the scheme been approved in theory; it has also been tried successfully in practice.

In a small school system the superintendent coördinates the work of these specialists; in large systems it is done by an assistant superintendent or supervisor. In either event two-thirds of the superintendents whose judgment on the matter was sought declared that they would choose an educator to direct the program.

These specialists not only function as individuals educating teachers, serving as consultants, and dealing with youth directly, but they may also function together as a group forming a mental hygiene or child

¹ National Education Association. "Character Education." *Tenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence. (National Education Association: Washington, 1932. 535 pp.)

² Francis C. Rosecrance, *op. cit.*, p. 588.

guidance clinic. Where cases require it, teacher and guidance leader may obtain the combined judgment of these specialists to assist them in their work with an individual boy or girl.¹

VI. THE SELECTION, TRAINING, AND EXPERIENCE OF THE STAFF

1. Selection, Training, and Experience of Teachers

Of course, the kind of staff needed for the guidance program proposed in this Yearbook, is, for the most part, not now available. In a study of sixty-two elementary schools, fifty-two junior high schools, sixty-two senior high schools, forty-two central office guidance departments, forty-seven child study departments, and fifty-one home-visiting departments, the need for better qualified workers and for better understanding of the work by teachers were among the outstanding needs encountered.

Recent studies have shown that students who elect teaching as their profession are, as a group, inferior in general ability to those entering a number of other fields of work. This suggests the importance of some selective policy and program for prospective entrants to this occupation. The criteria and techniques needed for the selection of better teachers need not be dealt with here, save to stress the inclusion of criteria appropriate to the effective guidance of children. In particular, teacher-training institutions and boards of education must consider the teacher's personality and emotional health. Says Taft:

If only one factor in a child's maladjustment at school can be changed, the attitude of the teacher will usually be found to be the most important and its alteration most immediately effective in bringing about improvement.²

The personal adjustment of the candidate for a teaching position should be more carefully considered before he is trained or hired. And yet, according to Robinson:

There are no complete programs of mental hygiene in teacher-training institutions in the United States. . . . The majority of teacher-training institutions have nothing that can be called a program of mental hygiene.

¹ For a more detailed description of guidance programs, the reader is referred to William C. Reavis, *Programs of Guidance*. Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 14. (United States Government Printing Office: Washington, 1933)

² Jessie Taft. *The Relation of the School to the Mental Health of the Average Child*. P. 5. (National Committee for Mental Hygiene: New York, 1932)

. . . A few that do not have programs have an interest only in mental abnormalities and not in the improvement of normal personality.¹

It seems likely that the requirements of the core-teacher rôle will necessitate some changes also in the pattern of training. Reference has been made to a shift away from the logical organization of subject materials to an organization based on the interests, activities, needs, and problems of children. Recent figures indicate that at the most not so many as one in ten pupils are now working in a so-called 'new' school of the 'activity' type. But if this fraction is to increase, it is pertinent to point out that in the past fully seventy-five percent of most teachers' preparation was spent on subject matter and how to teach it, whereas training in understanding children was confined to a course or two in psychology — general, child, abnormal, or educational. Given the shift in emphasis just cited, this pattern of training can in principle no longer be considered adequate. Ideally, the teacher today should be acquainted with more recent developments in the fields of nutrition, endocrinology, child guidance, medicine, psychology, social work, psychiatry, and mental health. He should know something of the characteristics of physical, mental, and emotional development and be able to identify deviations therefrom. While it would be unreasonable to expect the teacher in practice to be a specialist in all of these fields and also to know all that he should know to be a resourceful and stimulating guide of learning experiences, yet it is clear that he must know more about them than has the teacher of the past. In the training of teachers, the understanding of children must always receive at least equal emphasis with the understanding of subjects.

While prospective teachers should obtain this sort of training prior to beginning their professional careers, in-service training should also be provided for those already teaching. Among the methods available for this purpose are the following: a series of lectures, books, magazines, and other reading materials; study and conference groups and demonstrations; discussion of individual cases with teachers; participation of teachers in the 'staffing' of cases; sharing by teachers in planning the work to be done in surveying pupil needs and in serving on faculty committees that deal with some phase of guidance; enrollment in summer-school and extension courses.

¹ Quoted by Harry N. Rivlin. "The preparation of teachers in personality adjustment." *Fifteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary-School Principals*. P. 417. (National Education Association: Washington, 1936)

The new program synthesizing the instructional and guidance functions of the teacher will place a premium upon a rich experience. Travel, adventure, work in factories, stores, offices, camps, playgrounds, and social agencies, competence in sports, art, music, drama, handcraft — all of these will be of great value in guiding young people.

2. Selection, Training, and Experience of Guidance Leaders

The tentative requirements outlined in the preceding paragraphs suggest some minimal standards for guidance leaders. But counselors should possess more experience, training, and better qualifications than even the best teachers. What should be some of their personal characteristics? The following list, given in order of acceptability, has been compiled from data obtained in two separate inquiries, one by Edgerton¹ and one by the writer.² According to these data, guidance leaders should possess

1. Sympathetic understanding and interest in young people
2. Pleasing and friendly personality — a person easy to approach
3. Ability to get along with people — tact
4. Good judgment
5. Interest in guidance work
6. Good character and a wholesome philosophy of life
7. Emotional stability
8. Professional attitude toward the work
9. Capacity for work
10. Mental alertness — intelligence
11. Leadership

These are the qualities sought in guidance leaders by a large number of school administrators. Others would wish to add to this list creative power, patience, sense of humor, and other important characteristics.

In addition to such personal qualifications, certain types of experiences for guidance leaders appear to be more desirable than others. Approximately eighty-four percent of 535 counselors, deans, and advisers, whose experiences have been studied by the writer, were teachers immediately prior to accepting counseling leadership. This corroborates Sturtevant and Strang who conclude, "The simplest vocational path to the dean's position in high school is by way of high-school

¹ A. H. Edgerton. "Recent Changes in Curriculum for Training Counselors." (Address to College Teachers of Guidance, National Vocational Guidance Association, St. Louis, Missouri, February 20, 1936)

² Francis C. Rosecrance, *op. cit.*

teaching.”¹ Perhaps more significant is the fact that 53.8 percent of the 535 counselors cited above and seventy-five percent of the 263 women deans in colleges and universities studied by Jones² had had no other work experience than teaching. The question can legitimately be raised as to whether such persons are qualified to guide young people in a world in which they themselves have had such limited experience.

It may be of significance to know which of the work experiences these leaders in guidance have had they considered of value in their counseling work and recommended to persons interested in this field. The following list, taken from the writer's study, gives the number of counselors recommending each type of work indicated:

Teaching	172	Travel	20
Factory work	72	Farming	15
Social work	55	Health work	11
Office work	46	Boys' and girls' club work	10
Store work	46	Personnel work outside schools .	9
Business	43	Unskilled labor	5
Summer camps	33	Working way through college ..	5
Recreational work	26	Visiting-teacher work	4
Church work	26	Army and Navy experience	4
Homemaking	24		

Obviously, some of the numbers given are small because the number having had this type of experience was small. However, teaching, factory work, and social work were deemed to be most helpful in the light of experience these counselors had had.

These same guidance leaders were also asked to list the types of experience they had not had, but believed would be helpful. Social case work, factory work, business, personnel work outside schools, office work, and occupational research were reported in the order named. Sturtevant and Strang say:

Travel in the United States and in Europe, marriage, the rearing of children, secretarial work, newspaper experience, welfare work, and many other kinds of experience can be used advantageously in the dean's work.³

What training should guidance leaders have? In so far as training may be represented by academic degrees, three studies⁴ show that

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

² Jane L. Jones, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

³ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

⁴ A. H. Edgerton. *Vocational Guidance and Counseling*. Chapter IV. (The Macmillan Company: New York, 1928); John A. Fitch, *Vocational Guidance in Action*. P. 74. (Columbia University Press: New York, 1935); Francis C. Rose-

seventy-three, seventy-nine, and ninety-two percent of counselors had completed the requirements for the bachelor's degree. Two of the investigations reported that 28.6 and 45.1 percent held the master's or the doctor's degree. Obviously this training is far too meager. The time is probably not far distant when training beyond the master's degree will be required of all guidance leaders.

Taking courses does not always mean receiving training, but their titles suggest types of experience that may prove helpful. Of special value, according to guidance leaders coöperating with the writer, were courses in guidance, psychology, tests and measurements, and sociology. Courses in psychology, guidance, mental hygiene, and psychiatry were those of which these counselors felt the greatest need. When these two groups of courses are combined, this group of guidance leaders would recommend to persons preparing for this field courses in guidance, general psychology, tests and measurements, mental hygiene, sociology, child psychology, educational psychology, social case work, school administration, and personnel administration. This list corroborates fairly well an earlier finding by Fitch.¹

If the newer point of view advanced earlier in this Yearbook is to prevail, courses in educational philosophy, the curriculum, community relations, economics, and occupational trends must be added.

The professional preparation of guidance leaders may also be deduced from what they need to know, as set forth earlier in this chapter.

Plans for the in-service education of guidance leaders include many of the activities already listed for the in-service training of teachers. Summer-school courses, extension courses, reading lists, bulletins, individual conferences, handbooks, the assignment of new workers to be trained by experienced counselors, visits to other schools and cities, attendance at state and national conventions are methods used in some communities. The Providence "Rotating Scheme"² for the training of class counselors deserves special mention because of its unique character.

3. Selection, Training, and Experience of Supporting Specialists

Certainly personal qualifications sought in teachers and guidance leaders are no less desirable for the supporting specialists. In most

crance. "The training of personnel and guidance workers." *Educational Trends*, 4: January-February, 1936, 20.

¹ John A. Fitch, *op. cit.*, p. 77.

² For a discussion of this plan, see Richard D. Allen, *op. cit.*, pp. 280-286.

instances acceptable standards of training and experience have been set by such professional associations as the American Medical Association, American Psychological Association, American Association of Visiting Teachers, the National Vocational Guidance Association, and the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers. Even in one or two of these cases the standards are regrettably low, as, for example, those of one association that admits members who have a bachelor's degree or a normal-school certificate plus one year of professional training and requires only one year of teaching and one year of professional experience.

Since several professional associations are not primarily concerned with standards for work in the educational field, special emphasis should be placed on the desirability of securing specialists who have had some training and experience in education. The specialist who understands the purposes of the school and knows at first hand the problems of the teacher will be more helpful and make fewer mistakes than the one without this background.

Perhaps a more puzzling problem is how to get such standards for specialists accepted. With the probable exception of physicians, it is possible for any number of unqualified persons to 'hang out their shingles' and call themselves 'psychologists,' 'psychiatrists,' 'visiting teachers,' or 'vocational counselors.' For this reason, boards of education will do well to investigate the specialist very carefully before he is employed.

VII. CERTIFICATION

Possibly one of the ways to eliminate undesirable persons from the teaching profession is by the certification system. However, since regulations at present are so unsatisfactory and because, once fixed, they are so difficult to alter even in the light of changing requirements, this method should be adopted only after thorough investigation by competent authorities.

If such a study should result in a favorable attitude toward the certification of guidance workers, it is likely that some special provisions should be recommended to cover the qualifications of each of the three groups of workers considered in this chapter. For example, the certification requirement for teachers might well be changed to include more understanding of human beings. The standards set for counselors by the New York State Department of Education¹ would

¹ For a statement of these regulations, see Events—before and after. "Counselor Certification." *Occupations*, 14: November, 1935, 153.

prove suggestive for the certification of guidance leaders. A certification system applied to supporting specialists might, in addition to confirming the standards of the professional associations, require some training or experience, or both, in the field of education.

In the interest of better guidance of boys and girls, if a certification plan is to be of value in any of these fields, it must be keyed to a reasonably high standard — certainly not to the standard represented by the most poorly qualified person now holding a job.

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CHAPTER XI

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

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I. INTRODUCTION

When viewing the European scene, which constitutes the major foreign area with which we are concerned, it must be kept in mind that the term 'guidance' is always coupled with 'vocational' and is never used in the broader sense assumed in this Yearbook. *Orientation professionnelle*, *Berufsberatung*, and *orientamento professionale* mean orientation and counsel toward occupations. In this sense guidance is highly organized. As 'orientation in educational institutions,' as 'aid in planning education,' as 'personality adjustment and learning about one's own characteristics,' guidance does not exist. Guidance there is, not under that name, but woven into a complex of social, economic, political, and educational forces. Educational systems are definitely gauged to the adjustment of boys and girls to life, both social and occupational, but only as specifically noted in the ensuing discussion are those results sought through the media described and emphasized in the preceding chapters of this Yearbook.

Disparity of practice from one country to another is magnified by variations among communities in the same country, even in some of the highly regimented totalitarian states. Whatever the desires and aspirations of individual educational leaders, there is always present the weight of yesterday's ten thousand years. There are educational practice, social customs, proprietary rights, ethnic sympathies, the whole burden of habit. In the economically 'old' countries of Europe these influences have naturally been incomparably stronger than in this country, and therefore the concept of guidance in the American sense has been much slower to gain acceptance. Says Kandel:

The comparative approach demands first an appreciation of the intangible, impalpable spiritual and cultural forces which underlie an educational system; the factors and forces outside the school matter even

more than what goes on inside it. Hence the comparative study of education must be founded on an analysis of the social and political ideals which the school reflects, for the school epitomizes these for transmission and for progress. In order to understand, appreciate, and evaluate the real meaning of the educational system of a nation, it is essential to know something of its history and traditions, of the forces and attitudes governing its social organization, of the political and economic conditions that determine its development.¹

Similarly, Keller and Viteles write:

Occupational adjustment is interwoven with political and social philosophies, circumstanced by economics, circumscribed by tradition, and circumvented by politicians. Amid this welter of social forces, individual attributes — personality, culture, intellect, physique, all the characteristics that contribute to the making of morally excellent and dynamically effective human beings — must somehow be adapted to the realities of day-to-day existence. If possible, the human beings embodying these attributes must attain not only the good life, but the happy life. Vocational guidance is the instrumentality through which these forces may become operative. A *laissez-faire* policy no longer serves to draw the right workers to the right jobs; so society must provide the collective intelligence and the coöperative agencies to guide men and women into occupations where they may best serve both themselves and others. The traditional education does not develop 'occupation-intelligence' in its bewildered pupils; so the school must adopt more pertinent techniques. The story of this development and the details of the present guidance picture are the subjects of this study. It is of paramount importance that such a study take fully into account these social, economic, and political forces.²

In this chapter, these fundamental philosophies, principles, and economic systems can be touched upon only lightly and casually. They are inherent in the ancient dichotomies — conservatism and radicalism, regimentation and individualism, tradition and progress. There is a temptation to set off fascism against communism; but educationally speaking, it would seem that fascism and communism must be bracketed and set off against democracy. With reference to guidance, answers must be sought to questions like these:

¹ I. L. Kandel. *Comparative Education*. P. xix. (Houghton, Mifflin Company: Boston, 1933)

² Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Vocational Guidance Throughout the World*. P. 17. (W. W. Norton and Company: New York, 1937)

Who determines the child's schooling?

Who selects the subjects he studies?

Who determines his future job?

Does the educational system aim to change his personality or to fit it into the existing scheme of things?

What is the relation of the schools to the state?

Does the individual make his own educational and occupational choices or are they made for him by authority and tradition?

Generally speaking, the answer is that the individual himself has had the least to do with the choice of his education and occupation. The economic and social status of the parents has been the most important factor. The industrial, agricultural, and commercial situation — that is to say, the breadth of occupational opportunity — has been a determining factor. It is only with the emergence of the individual and with the growth of a respect for his development that guidance becomes an educational reality. This is why progress in the United States has been greater than in any other country. It is also the reason why this progress has been as slow as it has. Even in our own boasted democracy the forces of tradition and authority play a significant rôle.

The result has been that the parent, the teacher, the minister, the government functionary, the employer, all have had more to say about the individual's future than has the individual himself — not so much because these individuals have consciously set themselves the task of mapping out the life of each new-born child, but rather because they themselves have been the product of social forces. The political history of the country has aligned and realigned the economic structure. The church has inculcated attitudes of submission and resignation or has inspired deeds of adventure and valor. Racial characteristics have led to an emphasis upon the practical, the romantic, the classical, or the intellectual. Geography and weather have in turn been responsible in part for racial characteristics and have determined the occupations of the people. These, in their turn, have determined the political practices and theories controlling governmental institutions, including the schools. The schools themselves have often been organized by the church or by industry or by the state with the specific purpose of serving its ends rather than those of the individuals who attend them. And yet, with the weight of tradition against the development of guidance programs, the play of other influences, principally economic and scientific, has been great enough to make a dent in tradition and to forecast further adaptation of ancient systems to the needs of individuals.

II. FACTORS STIMULATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GUIDANCE SERVICE

1. Psychotechnics

Probably the most important influence has been the development of psychotechnics in the university laboratories of Europe. In the principal countries there has been continued intensive and extensive research in the analysis of individual traits with reference to scholastic, intellectual, technical, and manual performance. These traits have been studied with reference to specific occupations and the qualifications for success in those occupations.¹

2. The Depression

During the depression period maladjustment in the field of occupations, which has always existed, became obvious and dramatically tragic. While it is clear that no amount of guidance can counteract unemployment caused by a lack of balance in national and world economy, the analysis of individual traits and of specific occupations provides an important approach to the more effective distribution of workers. In Europe the overcrowding of the professions has been a peculiarly vexing problem. Governments have been especially desirous of reducing unemployment, sometimes by using methods that have been scientific and humane, at other times by resorting merely to the police power of the state.

3. The Growth of Free Education

In some countries, especially in England, there has been a rapid expansion in free secondary education, as has been the case in the United States. This has raised the problem of differentiation of abilities, of diversification of curriculum, and of preparation for jobs and placement in them. It has been realized that the old methods were no longer adequate and recourse has been had to the processes of guidance.

4. The Growth of Vocational Education

The realization just mentioned has in turn given impetus to vocational education. In some countries — Germany and Switzerland for instance — vocational education has had a long and honorable history. In others it has been slow to develop. A strong caste system has served

¹ Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Op. cit.* Chapters VIII and IX.

effectively to determine the future occupations of most boys (girls have been largely neglected), but with the upset of the general world economy and the disruption of property relations that support caste, it has been inevitable that some other method of distribution would have to be found. Moreover, as in this country, it has become more and more evident that the most effective vocational education is that which follows the most effective vocational guidance.

5. Apprenticeship Systems

Apprenticeship is one of the oldest forms of vocational education. Informally it has always existed. On a contractual basis it flourished during the Middle Ages. Modern mass production methods have produced the so-called 'new apprenticeship.' When the employer engaged one or two apprentices from among the boys in his own town, where he had probably known the family all his life, selection was comparatively easy. However, when large numbers of apprentices are drawn from the entire population to work in factories, a more practicable method of selection is needed.

6. Concept of Social Welfare

In all countries there is the desire that individual workers shall contribute to the welfare of society at large. In the authoritarian countries service to the state is the first consideration. Vocational guidance is looked upon as a means of assuring the most effective contribution.

7. Sympathetic Educators

Amid all these other influences there is that intangible, but fortunately potent, drive on the part of interested and sympathetic teachers and school administrators for more effective education, for education that develops thinking, feeling, and willing individuals, competent to choose wisely as they pursue their educational, vocational, and social careers. These educators have constituted one of the most stimulating factors toward better guidance in education.

III. ORIENTATION IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Orientation in educational institutions has been for the most part a survival of the rigors of academic teaching. Schools have been provided for the inculcation of certain fundamental knowledge and the development of a certain pattern of character. Upon the ability to

acquire these, success has been measured. Those whose economic and social status warrant continuance through secondary school and university are early differentiated from those not thus fitted to continue; a later change of plan is difficult, if not impossible. Wherever young people and adults get together, there is bound to be discussion of success and failure, diagnosis and prognosis, asking and giving advice. Parents and children will inquire, teachers will suggest and explain; informal, conscious orientation is an inevitable accompaniment of the teaching process. To the extent that teachers and administrators are worldly wise and emotionally understanding and are, above all, genuinely interested in their pupils, such orientation will be effective. At its best it is haphazard; at its worst it is positively harmful. Generally speaking, it substitutes whim and fallibility for organization and science. It is not the kind of guidance that constitutes a valid educational procedure. With the exceptions that will be noted, this is the type of orientation that has existed in foreign countries and that exists in most schools in this country. It needs and deserves no special description here.

IV. TRANSITION TO COMMUNITY LIFE

1. European Concentration upon Vocational Guidance

It is out of this very naïveté regarding the appropriateness of school education for adjustment to life situations that the vocational guidance movement has grown. Much school activity has been carried on in an atmosphere of unreality, in almost cloistered seclusion, with the result that transition to non-school life has been so momentous as to recall the old geological theory of Cuvier, involving catastrophic destruction and repeated creations. It is, of course, obvious that the transition to community life involves only one new element, that of the vocation, of the need for economic self-sufficiency. It has been the need and desire for a smoother, more rational transition that has given rise to *vocational* guidance, and has also given rise to a running debate as to whether 'vocational guidance' was not a too narrow and perhaps utilitarian conception of an educational process, and so on. There would be no need even to mention this, except that guidance in foreign countries, considered apart from the traditional academic curriculum, is primarily vocational.

In foreign countries the term 'guidance' is used only in connection with vocation. The guidance services have usually developed out of other government services devoted to work and jobs. In Great

Britain, Germany, France, and Russia guidance has been an activity of the Ministry of Labor, with special reference to placement and the desirability of meeting the needs of industry. It soon became patent that the needs of the individual were also important; so co-operation with the schools has become inevitable. In turn the weakness of the schools has become evident, so that they, along with labor departments and employers, have turned to the psychological laboratories for more precise and valid data regarding not only individuals but also traits requisite to success in the various vocations.

The technical methods used, generally derived from psychological practice and procedure in personnel selection, exhibit considerable uniformity throughout the various countries. The refining and standardizing effects of scientific application are apparent, as is also the interchange of experience in such a closely compacted area as Europe. It is in those features that reflect the varied cultures, occupational pursuits, and school systems that the objectives and practices begin to diverge. For the principal countries it is necessary to give separate descriptions, while for others it is sufficient to note minor variations.

2. Great Britain

The schools of Great Britain are still evolving out of a number of different origins, principally of a religious character. They are not uniform in aim or organization. Such uniformity as exists has been brought about through national grants-in-aid. Primarily there are the elementary schools for the common people, designed to teach the fundamentals of language, numbers, and civics. After this, the boy at approximately fifteen years of age is expected to go to work and the girl to go to work or stay at home. There is the secondary school (ages eleven to eighteen, thus partly overlapping the elementary school), which is growing in population, but which is in no manner an institution of the people as it is in the United States. In fact, the so-called 'Public Schools' have been the particular preserve of the socially established and the rich. The old universities, Oxford and Cambridge, have been receptive only to the intellectual élite, but the newer provincial universities, such as Manchester and Liverpool, have organized their curricula with relation to the social demands of the country. They have attracted not only those students who have been barred from Oxford and Cambridge, but also those whose primary interest has been the current life of the nation. It is these universities that have been most sensitive to professional needs.

Vocational guidance is provided

for three types of persons: elementary-school 'leavers' (ages fourteen plus to sixteen plus), secondary-school graduates (generally at ages sixteen or eighteen), and university graduates. The elementary-school leavers are guided and placed either through the Juvenile Employment Exchanges operated by the Ministry of Labour or the Juvenile Employment Bureaus operated by the Local Education Authorities. The secondary-school pupils receive guidance either through the Head Masters themselves, through 'careers masters,' or through Junior Advisory Committees coöperating with the Head Masters, while University graduates are placed through appointment bureaus. For those already employed there are the Junior Instruction Centres, or classes, now compulsory. For those who desire, and can pay, or obtain free places, for training in their chosen careers, there are the trade and technical schools; and for certain of the professions, the Universities. . .

The most obvious and clearly defined type of guidance work conducted in Great Britain is that which involves placement of fourteen- to eighteen-year-old boys and girls who leave the elementary school either because they have reached the age of fourteen or fifteen, the end of the compulsory period according to locality (this is the case with the vast majority), or have reached sixteen, the usual secondary school leaving age, or somewhere in between have completed the course. This placement work is carried on in 193 communities or areas by the Ministry of Labour through what are called the Juvenile Employment *Exchanges*, and in 106 other areas by the Local Education Authorities through Juvenile Employment *Bureaus*. The Ministry of Labour is assisted in the operation of the Exchanges by Advisory Committees for Juvenile Employment. The Local Education Authorities are assisted in the administration of the Bureaus by their own sub-committees, known as Juvenile Employment Committees. The members of these committees are drawn, of course, from the local areas. At first it is confusing to find these placement offices, as we should call them, in some places under one jurisdiction and in others under another. But there is no duplication, the situation having arisen out of the law which gives the Local Education Authority the right to 'exercise choice of employment powers' and makes it mandatory upon the Ministry of Labour to exercise such powers if the Local Education Authority does not do so.

In many of the principal centers of population and industry, including Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Bradford, Cardiff, and Newcastle, and in many smaller areas, the Education Authorities have accepted this responsibility. In all other areas, notably within the jurisdiction of London County Council, in a number of large cities, such as Bristol, Sheffield, and Hull, and throughout Scotland — save in Edin-

burgh where a special joint scheme has been established — the work is conducted directly by the Ministry. A high degree of community co-operation among various occupational groups is attained ¹

The guidance procedure is not profoundly scientific, but it is practical within certain severe limitations. The Secretary for Juvenile Employment has information on jobs available. The school principal presumably is familiar with the scholastic accomplishments of the young person, and the parent knows a great deal about his personal characteristics, though he (oftener she) does not express himself in precise and scientific terms. When these three get together, along with the youngster himself, they do come to something like a desirable conclusion.

The problem of the secondary school is different only in that the graduates tend to be placed in office occupations rather than in the factory and shop. In order to make this a more rational process, the Incorporated Associations of Head Masters and Head Mistresses of Public Secondary Schools have coöperated with the Ministry of Labour in the writing of a number of occupational information pamphlets. The London Office also canvasses employers for positions, makes placements, visits schools for the purpose of talking to pupils and parents, arranges for special lectures to pupils, maintains contacts with boys and girls after employment through Friday 'open evenings,' and publicizes the work of the Association by sending information to employers. Whatever individual guidance work is done in the school is conducted by the headmaster, but there are indications that gradually it may be done through a careers master, a position recently developed in the Public Schools. In most cases the careers master is a teacher, sometimes house master, who is designated as personal adviser to all the boys and who carries on his activities outside classroom hours.

Within recent years the most effective force for guidance, as it is understood in the United States, has been the National Institute for Industrial Psychology. Employing the best-known psychological methods, it has given guidance to individuals on a consultative basis, has advised commercial concerns in personnel problems, and still more recently has coöperated with local education authorities in the development of public guidance programs. This has been notably true in Birmingham and in London, where inquiries have been conducted to determine whether or not the occupational adjustment of children is

¹ Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Op. cit.*, p. 7.

better when they are advised as a result of psychological tests than when they are given only the traditional treatment. The general conclusion is that the newer and more scientific methods produce superior results.

There are other guidance agencies, usually not classified as such. All unemployed boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and eighteen may be compelled to attend courses of instruction for at least fifteen hours a week, the compulsion being brought about through the withholding of the unemployment benefits to which their parents are entitled. Although the Junior Instruction Centres (popularly known as J.I.C.'s) are officially considered non-vocational and the term 'guidance' has not been used in connection with them, the morale that they are supposed to maintain seems for all practical purposes to be coincident with guidance.

Occupational information is not taught in the schools, but several municipalities, notably Liverpool, as well as the Ministry of Labour, have made a point of gathering local information and making it available to teachers. After a number of years of preparation, Oakley and Macrae of the N.I.I.P. have published a handbook of systematized information on occupations, which should prove exceedingly useful to teachers and counselors.¹

3. France

It has frequently been stated, with some truth, that, in contrast to Great Britain, the schools in France are highly regimented, are subject to strict regulation by the Department of Education in Paris. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that vocational guidance offices (as the name *Orientation Professionnelle* indicates, it is always *vocational* guidance) vary tremendously in their personnel, physical provisions, and official relations. Their organization usually takes place as a result of the initiative of some interested individual. While the placement offices of the Ministry of Labor consider guidance as one of their functions, they make no special provision for it except through the *offices d'orientation professionnelle*, which may have become attached to it in a number of different ways.

The organization of the elementary schools makes no provisions for vocational guidance, although the more progressive ones coöperate with other bodies for this purpose. There is no guidance in the second-

¹ C. A. Oakley and Angus Macrae. *Handbook of Vocational Guidance*. (London: University of London Press, 1937)

ary schools. The only part of the school system that has shown a lively appreciation of the importance of vocational guidance is the vocational department, where many of the best procedures are found in operation.

Vocational guidance is not a mandate upon any national agency. While self-organized groups may take on the task for themselves, bring themselves under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, and may receive subventions from the national treasury, there is no compulsion in the matter. Communities are not compelled to organize offices and children do not have to patronize them. Yet there is, usually, one *Office d'Orientation Professionnelle* in each department in France and in some departments more than one. The total number is 186, of which only about 100 function regularly. There is usually only one counselor in each office, except in the largest offices. Each year, on the average, 850,000 children leave school to go to work. About 30,000 pass through vocational guidance offices.

In theory, it would appear that any persons interested in vocational guidance might organize an office. In fact, such a group would be composed of trade representatives, physicians, school administrators, or placement officers already engaged in some phase of guidance activities. In any case they can operate and receive support from the government only when they have served notice to, and received sanction from, the Division of Vocational Education (*Direction de l'Enseignement Technique*). The law also requires that the centralization of studies and research in this field shall be brought about under the direction of the professor of industrial psychology (*Organisation Technique du Travail Humain*) at the National Conservatory of Arts and Crafts. In addition to the subvention of the national government, there is usually support from the city or the department or from both. The vocational counselor is not a recognized servant of the state, does not usually receive a regular full-time salary, and therefore does not enjoy the pension and other rights of civil servants.¹

The driving force in vocational guidance in France is the National Institute for Vocational Guidance (*Institut National d'Orientation Professionnelle*), which was founded in 1928 under the auspices of the Division of Vocational Education in the Ministry of Education and which brought together in active coöperation the school staffs, the psychological research groups, and the employers. Its major function is the training of counselors, but it operates effectively in disseminating information about vocational guidance drawn from all parts of the

¹ Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Op. cit.*, p. 169.

world and also promotes the research necessary for the improvement of techniques.

The French vocational guidance offices bring together the best obtainable data regarding the individual child — physical, psychological, scholastic — and bring into consultation as many of the interested persons as possible, with the result that both the child and the parents have reliable information for the further orientation of the child. The standard set by the Institute calls for the recording of the results of an interview with the parents, the child's answers to a series of questions, the results of a physical examination, the results of an extended general psychological examination, and the results of a vocational aptitude test.

4. Germany

The three important totalitarian states, Germany, Russia, and Italy, offer interesting comparisons and striking similarities in their vocational-guidance programs, despite the fact that the two Fascist states and the one Communist state proclaim such utter opposition with respect to political tenets. They agree, however, that the chief duty of the citizen is to serve the state and that his own desires must subordinate themselves to those of the people as a whole. Of course, whether or not the stated aims of the dictatorship really represent the will of all the people is another matter.

Vocational guidance (*Berufsberatung*) in Germany has, perhaps, a longer history than it has in any other country. Developing scientifically out of psychotechnics and applied practically in the employment offices, it had reached a high degree of excellence long before the Fascists took it over. Under the First Reich, of course, service to the Emperor was paramount and adherence to one's social and economic class was assumed. However, within these limitations, vocational guidance played an important part in enabling boys to find suitable vocations, as well as aiding the Government to reallocate workers according to national need. During the period of the Second Reich the individual began to experience little by little the delights of free play of personality in a democracy. But in the Third Reich, *Berufsberatung* has once more become a means of advising, and often of forcing the acceptance of the advice, in the interests of the state. The organization of the offices has remained much the same, the program has been extended to every corner of the country, and both methods and personnel have become standardized. The objectively scientific procedures of the psychologist have

necessarily been subjectivized by Nazi philosophy. Yet, for all this, the vocational-guidance offices operate with great efficiency and probably represent as well integrated and as smoothly functioning a national program as can be found anywhere. The growth and scope of the program is indicated by a summary of the figures:

The number of offices offering vocational guidance service has varied through the years. There were 592 in 1922. In 1924, there were 597 bureaus, distributed partly as follows: Silesia 73, Rhine Province 72, Berlin 19, Bavaria 61, Saxony 56, Hamburg 3, Bremen 3. The number seeking counsel was 250,360, of whom 57.5 percent were men and boys, and 42.5 percent were women and girls. Approximately 90 percent came from *Volksschule* and 9 percent from the *Mittelschule* or a higher institution. Of every 100 boys leaving school, about 40 sought counsel, while the figure for girls was 25. About 40 percent of those seeking counsel were placed in positions.

There were in 1935, in the entire Reich and under unified control, 363 vocational guidance offices under the jurisdiction of 13 principal offices (*Landesämter*). They employed 900 (600 men and 300 women) vocational counselors (*Berufsberater*). In the year ending June 30, 1933, the number of persons seeking counsel (*Ratsuchende*) was 394,278. On the same date in 1934 it had reached 600,518, and on June 30, 1935, the total was 848,371. For the 848,371 seekers, there were 260,383 placements.

In Berlin, where there are eight offices, 50,000 pupils leave school each year. Fifty percent of them come to the offices and 50 to 60 percent of these are placed. Of course, one of the difficulties encountered in these days is that many factories and stores, through the adoption of new methods, find that they do not need young people as apprentices. However, by agreement rather than by compulsion, all the employers in Berlin take only young people who have passed through the vocational guidance offices.

In this connection it should be noted that the *Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung* has powers which enable it to bring great pressure to bear upon the employers in the interest of unemployed workers and of the nation at large. It closes industrial districts to non-resident workers; it excludes certain ex-agricultural workers from industrial employment; it transfers men on public projects to agricultural occupations; and it enforces such action by control of relief payments to unemployed and by fines and imprisonment. Wide use is made of these powers.¹

As in Great Britain and France, by far the largest numbers of pupils benefiting from vocational guidance come from the elementary schools

¹ Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Op. cit.*, p. 129.

(*Volksschulen*). And, it should be noted that each pupil who leaves the elementary school must attend the continuation school (formerly called *Fortbildungsschule*, but now generally known as a vocational school, *Berufsschule*) until he is approximately eighteen years of age. Six days of work in the factory or shop and one day of related subjects in school constitute his program. Obviously, continued control through the continuation school makes effective guidance easier than in those countries where the vocational education program has not reached the point that it has in Germany. The procedure includes all the techniques used in the other countries, with some variations and additional refinements. Testing is based upon the best that German psychotechnicians have produced, and this means a high degree of excellence, for the results of their work are obvious in all the other countries of Europe. Placing is done systematically and with authority. Occupational information is provided to counselors twice a month by the *Reichsanstalt* in the form of leaflets (*Berufskundliche Mitteilungen*). Many good texts on occupational information are available. Among the various items of information required regarding the pupil, is the opinion of the Hitler Youth Organization leader.

Despite the fact that the most intensive efforts in vocational guidance have been directed toward elementary-school pupils who become the industrial and agricultural backbone of the country, excellent work has been done in the guidance of university students into the liberal professions (*Akademische Berufsberatung*). Under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Cultural Affairs (*Kulturministerium*) there are Occupational Information and Guidance Offices in nine of the large universities. The library in the office at the University of Berlin contains books, pamphlets, and clippings classified for 125 professions. Information on the more common occupations appears in *Studium und Beruf*, published by the associated guidance offices.

Notable are the many devices for the alleviation of unemployment. For about eight months, from Easter to Christmas, graduates of elementary schools spend their time in the camps of the *Landjahr*. Combining work and play, they relieve to a certain extent the labor market and gain certain educational values. The Labor Service (*Arbeitsdienst*) and 'thanks for work' (*Arbeitsdank*) have been other means of providing work that could not be found through the regular government or private channels. With the resumption of military training, it is very probable that much of the unemployment has been absorbed in the preparation for war.

5. Soviet Russia

While the Communist aims of the Soviet Government set it apart from the other European countries, its totalitarian character facilitates its description. One is tempted to say that in all its essential features it has been like that of Germany, using the best techniques it could borrow from other countries, developing new ones in its own laboratories, and guiding workers primarily in the interest of the state and only secondarily for the purpose of satisfying their own personal desires for job satisfaction. Of course, it is not so simple as this. For one thing, there has recently been a revolt against so-called scientific psychological procedures, on the ground that they tend to stimulate and develop class differences. It is difficult to learn just how this has affected day-to-day operation of the program. It takes its place alongside the mystery of the recent executions of so many former supporters of the Stalin régime.

There are, of course, striking differences grounded in philosophy and politics. Russia is a nation of workers, and the entire educational system is based upon a philosophy of work. During the earliest years of the school, indoctrination is in the interest of the worker, his rights, privileges, and duties. Work activities are an essential part of the school program, and all the instruction is given with a view to developing efficient and loyal workers, so that specific vocational-guidance procedures are, in a sense, only the culmination of the social orientation to which the pupil has always been subjected. Then, of course, it is notable that all considerations of race or creed are ignored. Previous association with the nobility or bourgeoisie or affiliation with the church has been a bar, but there has been a growing tolerance in favor of an acceptance of those who exhibit faithful adherence to the tenets of Communism.

As has already been noted, these brief statements regarding foreign countries are wholly inadequate, perhaps even misleading. In a complex and rapidly changing situation, such as has existed in Russia, this is especially true. It is difficult enough to keep abreast of the facts. Even those competent commentators who have lived in Russia for many years differ markedly as to their interpretation. However this may be, the bare outline of the vocational guidance program is as follows:

The Commissariats of Education have had little to do with vocational guidance. The responsibility has been divided between the National Union of Trade Unions acting through the All-Union Central

Council of Trade Unions and the local Commissariats of Health. Strange as it may seem in a country dedicated to unified planning, these two types of organization have both been working in the same fields, sometimes in the same areas. However, the methods used have been almost identical and have been calculated to give advice to children in the seventh grade of the general school as to whether they should attend a factory and plant apprentice school, enroll in one of the 'technicums,' or enroll in the second division of the secondary school.

This counseling program is handled through the vocational guidance bureaus. Each bureau is manned by a staff of physicians, psychotechnicians specializing in vocational testing, pedologists (educational specialists), statisticians, and clerks. Each serves a scheduled number of schools, under arrangements between the guidance bureau, the local Commissariat of Education, and the industrial or agricultural enterprises sponsoring the schools involved. Although there are differences among the major systems with respect to the material used in guidance; i.e., tests and forms, a standard plan of operation is employed by practically all bureaus. This includes the following steps, applying to each child from the seventh grade reporting for vocational guidance:

1. A survey is made of the salient facts on individual development, social origins, home conditions, degree of political enlightenment, etc., which have bearing both for guidance and in determining the child's 'acceptability' by factory and plant apprentice schools and other educational institutions. Wherever possible, these facts are obtained through home visits by nurses or assistants attached to the vocational guidance bureau. In some instances, older members of the *Komsomol* organization are given the task of procuring these data through contacts with the individual and his parents in the home. In still other cases, parents, in cooperation with school authorities, are entrusted with the responsibility of providing this information on questionnaires and other forms supplied for this purpose.

2. These data are supplemented by a record of school accomplishment, ratings by teachers on school work and extra-curricular activities, and reports from the pedologist attached to the school. In theory, each school is supposed to keep a cumulative record of physical examinations, repeated psychological examinations, school progress, etc., and to make this available to the vocational bureau. In practice, such records are extremely rare, and school achievement reports are generally limited to the current year.

3. In addition to ratings by teachers, reports and ratings on outside activities are obtained from other available sources. Associates of the individual, more particularly members of the *Komsomol* organization with whom he comes into contact, may be asked to furnish such data.

These are supplemented by ratings from foremen or apprentice-school instructors of the factory in which the individual has undertaken the observation and compulsory work required of pupils in the seven-year school.

4. Before coming to the vocational guidance bureau, the student writes an essay on the questions: *Which occupation do you want to enter? Why? What do you know about this occupation?* This is brought to the bureau and made the basis for an analysis of the child's *motivation* and *interests*. Interest-analysis blanks, self-ratings, ratings by teachers, and in a very few instances interest inventories may be further employed in the evaluation of interest.

5. Upon reporting to the vocational guidance bureau, the child is given a very complete medical examination in the anthropometric, eye, chest, neurological, nose-throat-ear, and other clinics of the medical section.

6. Each child is then given a battery of psychological tests designed to measure: (a) *general intelligence*, (b) *constructive or technical intelligence*, and (c) *manual dexterity*. Tests in groups a and b require approximately three hours and are frequently given to twenty or thirty children at one time. There are differences among the bureaus with respect to the number and kinds of manual-dexterity tests used. They are generally of the performance type, sometimes given individually and in other instances to groups and requiring from two to four hours.

7. The testing program is followed by an informal interview with the pedologist or psychotechnician of the type generally used in guidance programs throughout the world.

8. All data obtained in the successive steps of the guidance procedure are summarized on a form . . . This and the original records are then turned over to a Commission of Preliminary Review, including a physician, psychotechnician, and pedologist attached to the bureau and, in some instances, the school pedologist. A recommendation is prepared by this commission and informally discussed with the child and his parents prior to the final step of guidance.

9. In the most elaborate form of the basic guidance program, the recommendations and original data are turned over to a Final Commission, consisting of the members of the Commission of Preliminary Review supplemented by representatives from the (a) school, (b) the Parents' Association, (c) the *Komsomol*, and (d) from the factory or agricultural enterprise which sponsors the school attended by the child. The child and, whenever possible, his parents appear before this commission for a final discussion of the recommendation and of such difficulties as may appear in carrying it out.

In practice, this review by the Final Commission has frequently been found to be burdensome and impractical. In many instances, too, parents have not coöperated in the matter of attending meetings of the

Commission. As a result, this step is frequently omitted and the recommendation forwarded to the office of the school pedologist (Pedological Cabinet), which undertakes the responsibility for the final disposition of the case. Moreover, intermediate steps are omitted or curtailed, either by reason of laxness or because of limitations in equipment, personnel, rooms, etc. In general, there seems to be close adherence to this elaborate program in the larger cities, and a good deal of variability with respect to standards in smaller and outlying centers.¹

6. Italy

Vocational guidance through the use of psychological and medical techniques is a feature in several of the large centers in Italy, but has not as yet attained any national status. However, using the principle of the 'tryout,' the government, through decree and through national financial and administrative measures, has organized a post-elementary type of education designed primarily to enable boys and girls to choose and to prepare for the kinds of work for which they are fitted and which are available. *La scuola secondaria di avviamento professionale* (secondary vocational preparatory school) is, as its name implies, an institution calculated to give a realistic and useful education to the large majority of young men and women who are not destined by nature or economics to acquire an academic education or to use their talents in intellectual pursuits. Decreed in 1930, like all innovations, this one has been slow to come to full fruition. Accurate data are not yet available. However, drawing information from the original reports and from very recent personal observation, this appears to be the pattern:

The school is post-elementary (ages approximately 11 to 14) and is compulsory and free up to the age of 14. There are four principal types — agricultural, industrial, commercial, and marine, each three years in length. A typical program totalling 39 hours includes shop work (12), trade drawing (4), applied science (3), technology (4), physical education (2), religion (1), Italian (3), history, geography, and fascist culture (3), foreign language (3), mathematics (2), hygiene (1), choral singing (1). The school admits those who have graduated from elementary school and, subject to examination, those who become ten years of age during the calendar year. While tuition is free, pupils must pay annually a 25-lire laboratory fee, and upon graduation a 125-lire diploma fee. However, these fees may be remitted by the Ministry of Education, and in all cases the following are exempt: orphans of the

¹ Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles. *Op. cit.*, p. 238.

War dead, children in large families, maimed and invalided soldiers, and children of the needy.

The school prepares for choice of work and, for those who can pay the fees, for further training in vocational schools, all of which points to a national attempt to meet the conditions under which a people must live and work. In Italy dreams of empire cause war expenditures amid mass poverty and create a confused picture. Values are as conflicting as elsewhere. In a country predominantly agricultural and poor in many resources, struggling amid a complex of human and political forces, *la scuola secondaria di avviamento professionale* is a frank recognition of things as they are and is an attempt to meet them outside the limits of traditional educational procedure.

7. Guidance in Other Countries

The briefest of statements must suffice for other parts of the world, principally with reference to notable similarities or differences.

a. Switzerland.— Each of the twenty-two Swiss cantons has its own educational system and is independent of the other cantons in many ways. However, much uniformity of organization and procedure in vocational guidance is attained through the association for apprenticeship and vocational guidance (*Schweizer Verband für Lehrlingsfürsorge und Berufsberatung*). The best practice is illustrated in Zürich where the program includes the use of vocational charts, visits to shops and places of business, illustrated lectures, a school paper on vocational choice and vocational guidance, a vocational-information exhibition, physical examinations, psychotechnical examinations, display of material for individual interviews, lectures and conferences for parents, and placement. The entire program is closely integrated with a well-developed system of apprenticeship and vocational education.

b. Spain.— In 1928 Spain gave national status to the vocational-guidance movement. By statute the Institutes of Vocational Guidance of Madrid and of Barcelona, sponsored by the Ministry of Labor, were made administrative and research centers for the development of the guidance movement, exercising supervision over guidance activities in forty provinces. Each bureau was required (1) to specify and supervise the activities and procedures of the branch bureaus in its area, (2) to collect and treat data gathered by the branch bureaus, (3) to select and train personnel for the branch bureaus, (4) to conduct research for the development of improved guidance and selective techniques, and (5) to collaborate with the school and labor bodies in the

scientific classification of modern occupations and in the determination of diverse functional types. Associated with genuine interest and activity in vocational education, this action indicates the possibilities that lie in this unfortunate country. Civil war has undoubtedly played havoc with any kind of education and guidance, and no one knows what the future has in store for Spain.

c. Holland. — The school system of Holland parallels in most respects that of Germany. There is strong emphasis upon vocational work. However, neither through the labor offices or psychotechnical centers is there great dependence upon guidance. Lack of money has hampered some of the work already in progress.

d. Belgium. — In Belgium the French educational organization is dominant, and especially in such a center as Charleroi, vocational education is exceedingly effective. Some important pioneer work has been carried out, especially in Brussels, resulting only recently in the organization by royal decree of a national central office of vocational guidance. What the practical results will be remains to be seen.

In each of the Scandinavian countries, especially Denmark, beginnings have been made in the application of psychological techniques, but no national measures have been adopted.

e. Australia. — Australia has naturally looked to Great Britain for its pattern, with resulting developments in the activities of the labor offices and of psychotechnicians.

f. The Orient. — In the Orient, once again, all is war and confusion, with issues that overshadow and will ultimately control anything we call guidance.

8. The Training of Counselors in Foreign Countries

The training of counselors in foreign countries has been predicated upon the assumption that these counselors were specialists dealing in techniques apart from the routine of teaching and concerned with procedures and information with which teachers were not, indeed could not, be familiar. They imply the importance of special technical psychological and physiological knowledge of the individual and special technical knowledge of economic and social structures. Thus the leadership in such training has been taken by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology in Great Britain and by the Institut National d'Orientation Professionnelle in France, especially with reference to a study of the individual. The labor bureaus in Great Britain and Germany have naturally stressed the economic aspects, with especial reference to

placement. Thus the French course includes a detailed study of physiology, psychology, pathology, psychiatry, pediatrics, political and social economy, technical information on occupations, organization and practice of vocational guidance, and selection and orientation. Germany, on the other hand, sets up as a prime requisite practical experience in one of the trades. The quality of leadership, according to the tenets of the National Socialist party, is essential. In Switzerland greater stress is laid upon practical trade experience than upon a study of psychology, although the emphasis differs from one canton to another. In Russia an understanding and appreciation of the place of work in a socialist economy has been a first claim upon the vocational-guidance consultant; so in the 'socio-economic cycle' we find dialectic and historical materials, political economy, theory of the Soviet government, and 'Leninism,' along with some of the other more generally accepted topics.

The problem of counselor-training brings us squarely against the fundamental problem of the function of guidance itself and the functionaries involved in the program. Both in words and in works the present writer has expressed the philosophy eloquently stated in the first chapter of this Yearbook; that is, that guidance is a philosophy and function of the complete educational process. Carried to its logical conclusion, counselor-training would be coincident in part with teacher-training. This would be in addition to the training of specialists. Incidentally, it may be noted that the failure of guidance philosophy to permeate school systems is closely related to the failure of teacher-training institutions to inculcate the fundamentals of guidance in their students and future teachers. Yet, considering the source of our teacher material and of the outlook and philosophy of the men and women who constitute it, one should not underestimate the difficulties of bringing to full consciousness the implications and applications of guidance in those who do not pretend to an understanding of the social and economic scene. Therefore, a sympathetic attitude must be taken toward the European assumption that guidance involves techniques and procedures that must be brought to the young people by those who *know* about individuals and economics. Sooner or later, this must certainly be brought home to teachers. However, anyone who has tried to administer a practical guidance program with teachers trained in the traditional manner knows that only through continual impingement of the knowledge and practices of the guidance specialist will educational processes become socially profitable. The schools of Europe are in the early stages of this movement. If it ever gets into full swing and

can replace dominating political ideologies with human and scientific values, it may do for boys and girls what it has always been our hope it might do in this country.

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